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THE UNIVERSITY OF ALBERTA

COMMUNITY SCHOOL IN COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT: A CASE STUDY

BY

© PETER M. NNABUO

A THESIS

SUBMITTED TO THE FACULTY OF GRADUATE STUDIES AND RESEARCH

IN PARTIAL FULFILLMENT OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE

OF MASTER OF ARTS

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ABSTRACT

In tracing the evolution of Community Education concept in North America, this thesis presents a case study of a specific community school (Thorncliffe school) in Edmonton, Alberta which is in the process of implementing community education philosophy.

The study reviews the philosophical/theorectical literature on community education and discusses the macro and micro implementation strategies employed by different countries in the process of such implementation.

The model of community school (program and process) as proposed by Minzey and LeTarte is analyzed in order to gain better understanding of how a school can identify development. In addition, the case study provides some practical evidence in how a community school is implementing the six components of the community education model provided by Minzey and LeTarte.

The study proposes a "participation model" of community school, and provides a discussion and comparison of the role of the significant, personnel of community school on one hand (principal and coordinator) and the corporate manager on the other. Specific recommendations relevant to Thorncliffe School program and process are provided in conclusion.

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

Statement of the Problem

Proponents of the concept of a community school emphasize complete integration of the school and the community so that the traditional school boundaries for each are not distinguishable. This invites the neighborhood to utilize school facilities, classrooms, shops, gymnasia, meeting rooms, audio-visual equipment and the library, while the school makes use of neighborhood facilities such as public libraries, art galleries, museums, planetaria, and local industries. Each of these proponents of community schools argues that involving the people in relevant areas of their school will help eliminate alienation and increase the feeling of belonging among the citizens. Thus, Prout, 1977; Sullivan, 1978; Maloney, 1975; Minzey and LeTarte, 1979; and Gayfer, 1976 have emphasized the need for school board policies to encourage citizen participation in changing the educational programs of the schools in order to meet the developing needs of each particular neighborhood.

Based on "Document #35 of the Alberta Government Policy on Community Schools", community schools theoretically have the following characteristics:

1. Curriculum related to the neighborhood. Whenever appropriate the curriculum is related to real life situations

within the neighborhood. Students are encouraged to utilize the available facilities and resources in the community and to provide services while they learn. In addition, resources within the community are made available to the school. Thus, comprehensive study of the community becomes the basis for study of life in other communities.

2. Involvement in the community school appears effective when the parents and community members help to design the curriculum of the school and assist teachers through appropriate voluntary services. In other words, when the community participates in the design of the school curriculum and activities, the school tends to show a higher probability of meeting the principal needs of the neighborhood.
3. The School Board and the Principal maintain a democratic philosophy in the administration of the school. The argument here is that the school, by its title, should have an administrative philosophy which recognizes parents and interested citizens as contributors to the decision-making process of the school.
4. The staff members are made up of professional teachers who work co-operatively with one another, with community members and with the students.
5. In a community school, every one is either a learner or a teacher. Basically, educating the youth is given preference,

but all members of the neighborhood have a great deal to learn from each other, irrespective of sex, age, color, religious denomination, and the like.

6. The community school serves as an interagency co-operative. Here the school co-operates with the local agencies and organizations in the delivery of educational, recreational, cultural and social services needed by the neighborhood.
7. Continuous change and modifications are recognized in different circumstances as the population of the community changes. In this respect, community school facilities may be redesigned or modified in order to facilitate community use and encourage improvement of the educational activities of those involved.
8. The school, by its title, will encourage the study of the problems and issues (needs) of the neighborhood, usually in direct co-operation with the local agencies and the organizations within the community.
9. The goal of the community school is to ensure social solidarity among group members of that community. Here the school assumes some responsibility in delivering social services, and above all, involving people in problem-solving processes. This type of citizen participation in the school, encouraged by the school, distinguishes community schools from other public schools.

These characteristics of a community school seem to coincide with

some of the basic principles of community development. A school which implements the programs and process of community education automatically becomes a community school in that it becomes a facilitator for developing the people through community education philosophy. This catalytic role which community schools play for the development of its people is similar to community development principles in the following areas: a sense of belonging, citizen involvement, democratic philosophy, social solidarity, co-operative endeavor, determination and solution of needs, and the like. In this way it is easy to identify the community school as an agent of community development. For example, community education and community school concepts emphasize sharing and an interagency partnership. Through sharing, the school and the community will benefit from economic and social resources which are in short supply within the community. The ultimate result of such co-operative endeavours through integrated education in the school is that the people become better equipped with the knowledge and skills necessary to resolve issues and problems associated with local needs.

Purpose of the Thesis

This study endeavors to

1. describe the conceptual development of community education and the community school in the United States and Canada;
2. explore the model of community education and the community school proposed by Minzey and LeTarte, as adopted by the Thorncliffe school;

3. conduct a case study of the Thorncliffe school in order to gain a proper insight into the structure and operational components of the school, and propose a model for community schools based on citizen participation; and
4. provide recommendations based on the case study of the Thorncliffe school, Edmonton, Canada.

Method and Sources for the Study

This study is based on library research, a survey, and actual observation of the structure and content of the Thorncliffe community school in Edmonton. The available literature, including textual materials, government publications, journals, magazines, newsletters and newspapers, is examined to provide the researcher with comprehensive knowledge of the concept of a community school. Two sources of data were employed:

1. "Data from Survey" - (See Appendices 2 and 4). Data collected from this source will help the researcher analyze the operational components of the Thorncliffe school in terms of Minzey's and LeTarte's program versus process.
2. "Observation data" will show areas of consistency or inconsistency with reference to program versus process components of the school as disclosed by the Thorncliffe residents. As Chapter IV will later demonstrate, there is some correlation between what survey data reveal and what the residents suggest as the problems of implementing the community school

concept at Thorncliffe. Such correlations are in the area of citizen involvement in the classroom and general participation, a fact which limits the process components of the Thorncliffe school.

Significance of the Study to Community Development

In North America, some educators have been advocating citizen involvement in determining school policies which affect people's lives. Across Canada, some provinces are beginning to establish closer relationships between the school and its community. Within Alberta, and at Thorncliffe, communities and groups are discovering that school buildings really do belong to the people of all ages, where everyone is allowed to learn or teach any activity. This growing awareness has given birth in many localities to the community school (a "people centre") where the educational philosophy emphasizes the betterment of the people.

There is a new sense of comfort and sharing in the community school, a philosophy which relates directly to the princples of community development. Here, neighborhood adults are volunteering to help out with the school programs and process, or they are dropping in to see what goes on at the school where their children are being educated. Some educators in turn are welcoming and, in a few cases, actively soliciting greater community participation in both student programs and evening activities. As Miles illustrates:

> Involvement of neighborhood residents in neighborhood concerns and city-wide issues is viewed as a developmental process, one that is picking up momentum...Independence is an example of what can be done when institutions and residents through their

> neighborhood organization begin to communicate and to support one another. For I firmly believe that until there is grassroots involvement in city planning, the results will continue to fall short of need, area by area across our cities. This is because public officials are limited in understanding local constituencies and their needs and values. They are further limited because too often they can neither identify nor engage their constituent publics to assist them in the delivery of good government. Resources of institutions alone are inadequate to appropriate responses. And, citizens, as individuals without membership in local community or neighborhood, are helpless in solving problems that are beyond their resources and understanding. Therefore, urban society can only survive in unity, and this requires a new philosophy, new organization, and new commitments for working together (Miles, 1974:97).

Among other benefits, growing community interest has opened up important new avenues for a real-life education process beyond the walls of the classroom, a fact which illustrates collective endeavor essential to community development. In the same manner, a sense of understanding, trust and co-operation between the school and the community are helpful in counteracting the growing impersonality developing between school and community. Proponents of community schools claim that from the beginning of formal education, schools must help improve the neighborhood by guarding and reinforcing its values and humanistic ideals. Thus, Dewey, as early as 1915, called for decentralization of the decision-making process in order to meet the humanistic goals of the school.

Thus, the school partnership with the community is a promotion of the idea of a people-oriented society in which the members of the neighborhood work together for the benefit of all citizens. The case study of Thorncliffe elementary school will demonstrate to educators and community developers how a community school can facilitate the improvement of its neighborhood by offering programs and processes which

alleviate the needs of the people.

Thesis Outline

Chapter II defines and distinguishes between the concepts of community education and community schools, and proceeds to discuss their philosophical/theoretical bases. Other sections of this chapter deal with the historical development and current status of community education and community schools in the United States, Canada, Alberta, and Edmonton.

Chapter III presents models of community education which are compared internationally. In other words, macro and micro applications of community education are explored with reference to China, Tanzania, Cuba and North America, in order to understand the educational philosophy (although implemented differently in these societies) of servicing the grassroots.

Chapter IV discusses the six components of community education as presented by Minzey and LeTarte (1979). Programs and processes are identified and distinguished in order to show how the process components are linked to community development.

Chapter V presents the case study of the Thorncliffe school. It examines the background of the school and its neighborhood. Further, data for evaluation purposes are presented in two formats, namely: survey data and observation data. The interpretation of the data is discussed.

Chapter VI provides an insight into the role of the community school principal; co-ordinator compared to the corporate manager; and

proposed community school model based on citizen participation.

Finally, conclusions and recommendations based on the structure and content of the community school at Thorncliffe, are provided.

CHAPTER II

CONCEPTUAL DEVELOPMENT

This chapter will focus on the definition and distinction between "community education" and "community school". It will include discussions of the philosophical/theoretical bases of community education and community school, and the historical development and current status of community education and community schools in the United States, Canada, Alberta, and Edmonton.

Definitions of Community Education and Community School

The term "community education" may be defined as a learning experience which enriches the lives of people and helps them as they live in their communities. In other words, the concept of community education is a program as well as a process which may include whatever is necessary to enable people to lead full and happy lives within their community. According to Minzey, et al.,

> Community education is a philosophical concept which serves the entire community by providing for all of the educational needs of all of its community members. It uses the local school to serve as the catalyst for bringing community resources to bear on community problems in an effort to develop a positive sense of community, improve community living, and develop the community process toward the end of self-actualization (Minzey and LeTarte, 1979:26-27).

In this definition, it is important to note that community education is a concept and that the school becomes an agent which facilitates the implementation of the concept. Similarly, Document No. 35 pub-

lished by the Interdepartmental Community School Committee (IDCSC) of the Alberta government, defines community education as:

> ...a process in which people within communities utilize educational, democratic and sound research methods for both individual and community betterment (Interdepartmental Community School Committee, 1980:3).

Thus, in order to clearly understand the concept of community education, our definition should include the following characteristics: traditional and extended programs of education for all ages in the community; an impact on the community and the neighborhood process and programs; and the catalytic function which the school plays in facilitating the learning experiences in co-operation with groups and agencies of the community.

There is no single definition of a community school which is applicable to all communities. For instance, each community has different definitions of a community school, its operational function, its priorities, and its content. However, whether a community school constitutes a local neighborhood school, as in Canada, or a component of a national community integrated educational system as in Cuba, it has a definite philosophy, namely, that the school should be for the people, irrespective of their sex, age, religion, class, race, and the like. Here, learning becomes a lifelong process and the community school facilitates such learning. Thus, according to Ryan, a community school:

> ...seeks to serve the entire community, all ages, all interests. Its interest is to make the existing school plant a community center by encouraging community groups to use the buildings and providing a number of public and voluntary services, including health and social services as well as education (Ryan, 1976:133).

The provision of facilities and services, however, is not the most distinguishing feature of a community school. More importantly, it attempts to provide leadership for the mobilization of community resources directed toward the solution of community problems. In doing so, a community school gives rise to what Fantini, et al. refer to as:

> ...a fundamental change in the role of the community. Now, the community participates not only as a client, not only in an advisory role, but also as a decision-maker. It joins with the professionals in planning and operating the school. The clients no longer accept on faith, the idea that the school services the community, they take an active hand in determining the nature of the school's services and in ensuring that it is continually responsive to their needs as they see and feel them (Fantini, et al., 1970: 81-82).

Briefly then, what distinguishes community education from a community school is that the former is the concept of education while the latter is the base for the delivery of the concept. This is to say that the notion of community education has to do with education in its broadest sense, including a concern with neighborhood problems and their solutions through community action. A community school, on the other hand, becomes the base for this community action due to its unique location and facilities. In fact, community education is an "umbrella" concept, and the community school is the system which provides for the operationalization of the concept.

Philosophical/Theoretical Bases of Community Education and the Community School

Community education and the community school had their intellectual advocates before the turn of the century. One of the early

educators in Europe who successfully experimented on the enhancement of community education philosophy was Philip Emanuel von Fellenberg. During the nineteenth century, Fellenberg, a Swiss merchant, bought 600 acres of land and developed a school system that would alleviate neighborhood problems. Since farming was the predominant occupation of the people, the school helped students and citizens improve farm productivity. The success of this experimentation proved that the relationship between learning, neighborhood, and industry, could be achieved for the improvement of all involved. Later, more schools in Switzerland were designated to follow the fundamental principle of relating what was learned in the classroom to the actual life and needs of the neighborhood.

Similarly, after the industrial revolution in the United States, Henry Bernard proposed a philosophy of community education which would make public schools meet society's needs. He argued that public schools should establish a meaningful relationship with the community so that the schools would serve as social catalysts for the development of the people. He maintained that schools should be agents for social justice where all the people are allowed to take advantage of school facilities and activities in getting the best out of life.

Equally significant to the development of the philosophy of community education was Tonnies' theory of simple and complex societies (Gemeinschaft and Gesellschaft), in which he described the difference between the two communities. Tonnies discussed how acquaintanceship, associated with simple community, has been replaced by the strange-

ness of complex society, sympathy by antipathy, confidence by mistrust, and interdependence by individual freedom. It is obvious, then, that by implementing the philosophy of community education, industrial societies may regain the spirit of community (sense of belonging, sharing, trust and co-operation for a common good). This community education may include school-community interaction; a community school as a learning and teaching centre for everyone; and the content of the school must meet the needs of the neighborhood. As Minzey and LeTarte state:

> In that human interaction increasingly becomes more structured and formal, more impersonal and distant as communities grow larger, educational agencies must struggle to maintain a relationship within that growing depersonalization with a small, more homogeneous grouping. IF learning and education are best achieved in a relationship of warmth, trust and friendship, and this is best achieved by retaining the Gemeinschaft interaction described by Tönnies, the school must do what it can to retain this type of community structure (Minzey and LeTarte, 1979:6).

Authors who have advanced philosophies and theories of community education and community schools include Minzey and LeTarte, 1979; Bowen and Hobson, 1974; Levin (Ed.), 1970; Baker, 1966; Reiss, 1965; and Dewey, 1915. I shall review the works of the first and last two authors with the specific intention of pointing out their areas of agreement and disagreement. These three authors are selected specifically to illustrate that the concept of community education and community school, as agents for community development, are not new in North America.

Minzey and LeTarte, in their book Community Education: From Pro-

gram to Process to Practice, discuss the philosophies of community education and community school. They systematically define and distinguish between community education and a community school, and suggest how the structure and curriculum of the public school can be redesigned to embrace the "program" and "process" aspects of community education and community school, in co-operation with the neighborhood. The authors also emphasize the need for the neighborhood to be meaningfully involved in the determination of policies and procedures of the neighborhood school. In describing community education they state that:

> The very essence of Community Education is a belief that the school is most effective when it involves the people it is attempting to serve in designing the program and opportunities that the educational system is going to provide (Minzey and LeTarte, 1972:6).

They go on to propose a model of community education and a community school that provides a mechanism by which community education, when properly implemented, can be effective and efficient in the solution of neighborhood problems. It is important to note that Minzey and LeTarte have borrowed their philosophy of community education and community school from John Dewey who first advocated that true learning can be achieved only when the schools effectively relate to the society. The reader is reminded that Dewey's work will be reviewed later in this chapter in order to provide the basis for Minzey's and LeTarte's propositions.

A careful scrutiny of Minzey's and LeTarte's work invites some criticism, in that they failed to specify which aspects of community

education policies require citizen input and which do not. For example, in educated urban communities, it may be possible for citizens to actively participate in the design and implementation of community education and community school policies. However, in rural and illiterate communities, citizen participation may be limited to the areas of the school decision-making that are relevant to the people. One may ask who will determine community areas of relevance and expertise? Ideally, a comprehensive survey effectively designed and administered on any community, will monitor what a given neighborhood preceives as relevant and will provide insight into the educational level of the community (skills, professions, and the like).

Dewey's Theory of Community School. John Dewey, in 1915, developed a philosophy of public schooling based on community involvement. In his book entitled Schools of Tomorrow, he systematically analyzed the various techniques in which bureaucracy in the school can be decentralized in order to meet the needs of the changing society. The author goes on to illustrate the changes that have occurred in society in the iron and medieval ages, and currently in science and industry, yet our educational system has remained unchanged. The ways in which policies are made in our schools today represent the methods that were used during the aristocratic period. Dewey states:

> A democratic society, dependent upon applications of science for all its prosperity and welfare, cannot hope to use with any great success a system of education which grew up for the ruling body in an autocratic society using only human power for its industries and wealth. The ever-increasing dissatisfaction with the schools and the experiments in trade and industrial training which are being started, are protests against clinging to its out-worn inheritance. They are the first steps in the process

> of building a new education which shall really give an equal chance to everyone, because it will base itself on the world in which the children live (Dewey, 1915: 169-170).

Dewey's theory explores various methods by which our schools can be made more efficient and effective in society. He documented case studies of Gray community schools and cited how each school was helping to alleviate social problems in its neighborhood.

A careful examination of this theory indicates that the author is a strong supporter of the "open door" policy for all the schools. This being so, he fails to recognize that some communities may prefer bureaucratic principles in their schools while other neighborhoods may accept the opposite as an ideal. Irrespective of this drawback, Dewey, in his theory of educational democracy, itemized reasons why democracy should be exercised in our educational system. Examples of these include: using the child's dramatic instinct to teach history; learning to live through situations that are typical of our social life; solving problems in school as they would have to be met out of school; special teachers for special subjects from the very beginning; mending their own shoes to learning cobbling; and training the hand, eye and brain by doing useful work. Thus Dewey maintains that true learning is achievable when the school has a meaningful relationship with its community.

According to Reiss, community school content and programs should be determined by the neighborhood representatives in direct co-operation with the school board bureacracy. His theory is based on the administrative styles and the community connections to the school. He

explores three kinds of administrative styles that exist in the public school system, the "locked door", the "open door", and the "balanced theory". Reiss maintains that schools with a locked door policy assume that the school bureaucracy is capable of handling all the important educational problems. This is to say that in the closed door schools, community involvement in all major aspects of the planning and programming of school activities is kept to a minimum. The author indicates that the proponents of the closed door school argue that involving parents and local interested citizens in the decision-making process of the school will hinder the professional educator in delivering his assigned duties. In addition, the supporters of the closed door school believe that parents and local citizens lack professional training and show emotional ties to the child which may jeopardize the educational goals. People who advocate the locked door school usually ask: "What bureaucratic forms and what linking procedures will keep the school and the community at a maximum social distance?" (Reiss, 1965: 51). What this theory illustrates is that schools should be administered in such a way that decisions concerning the major problems of the school are determined by the bureaucracy. If school problems are better handled by the bureaucracy, the administration of the school therefore has no need for community participation is the argument of a "closed door" school. On the other hand, planning of curriculum (especially in the area of social studies) should have community involvement if the school's content is to relate to its neighborhood. Advocates of a "closed door" school tend to neglect the fact that community

participation may have a positive contribution to make for the progress of both the school and the community.

In presenting the second administrative style, namely the "open door" school, Reiss indicates that the basic assumption here is that learning processes take place outside the school building: at home, among peer groups and within the community. In this case, learning can be more effective when the educational experience is related to the daily life of the client system (neighborhood).

The "open door" school, then, calls for community participation but fails to specify what kind of problems need community involvement and which do not. Examples cited include the determination of teaching loads, patterns of teaching in the classroom, planning of academic and community-oriented curriculum , maintenance, funding, and the provision of additional facilities. Proponents of the "open door" school argue that the community should control all the major decision-making of the school, which is not necessarily true in practice. I think that the community should be allowed to participate in the school decision-making aspect which has relevance to the people.

Balance Theory: Reiss explains that the "closed door" and the "open door" concepts have some validity in the balance theory of schools.

> It asserts that intimate and distance school-community relations must be balanced in different degrees under different circumstances to optimize effective educational objectives (Reiss, 1965:52).

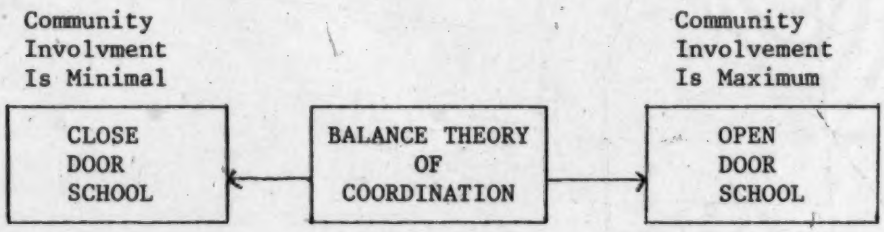
This theory, nevertheless, points out the weakness of each of the two

concepts. In the first place, the "open door" concept may bring the school and the neighborhood so close together that the professional status of the educators may be threatened. In other words, involving the community (parents, interested citizens and the students who usually lack adequate teacher training) in all aspects of the school decision-making, may distort the educational goals of the school. The second criticism is directed to the "close door" concept. Here the author says that the family and the school can maintain social distance in such a way that none of them would understand what each is doing. The balance theory, however, bridges these two gaps so as to reach the optimal social distance at a point between the dichotomies of intimacy and isolation.

> At such a point the schools will be close enough to co-ordinate behavior with the families but not so close as to disrupt the performance of professional educational tasks. This approach has been recently elaborated as a general theory of the effects of relationships between bureaucratic organizations and external primary groups on social control ...In the first case the balance theory approach would suggest the need for linking procedures to close the distance, in the second case, to increase social distance, and the third case would require the operation of both types of programs (Reiss, 1965:53).

Balance theory is stimulating in that it bridges the gap between the "close door" and the "open door" philosophies, but fails to specify when and how community involvement can be appropriate or inappropriate. This is to say that the bureaucracy which administers as well as co-ordinates community school activities and curriculum which are related to the neighborhood, and where the community provides expertise for such activities, must secure citizen participation in regard to these activi-

ties. In other words, the community should not be allowed to participate in areas of the school which have no significance to them.



Educators and principals may argue that community involvement in school decision-making will remove the formal authority vested in them by the bureaucracy. This will not be the case if the participation of the community is restricted to areas only relevant to the citizens (a philosophy which makes balance theory superior to other schools of thought). However, the level of involvement may differ from one school to another as community needs vary considerably. The school system is seen to be the change agent or the innovator who, by integrating the felt needs of the people into the school curriculum, is performing the administrative tasks associated with educational goals.

Historial Development of Community Education and Community Schools

American Experience. In 1911, in appreciation of Dewey's philosophical writings, the National Society for the Study of Education produced a working document entitled "The City School as a Community Center." This document emphasized such concepts as neighborhood access to the school, delivery of community services, and community use of recreational facilities of the school. In 1913, Joseph Hart published a book

entitled Educational Resources of Village and Rural Communities, which stressed the need for school-community interaction for the improvement of educational goals.

According to Prout, the concept of community schools in the United States, which derived its origin from the "Settlement House" and the "Playground Movement", involved black minorities who wanted their schools to provide recreational activities for all the people residing within the school's geographic zones. Thus, the operational term "community school" emerged in the 1930s and was especially associated with the schools whose content stressed the following functions:

> ...service to all groups in the community, and the delivery, development and use of the community's resources as part of the educational facilities of the school. The community school was seen as the product of a shift from the progressive school idea of John Dewey, where a child-centered curriculum was stressed, to a life-centered program (Prout, 1977: 9).

Later, in the mid-1930s, two experiments on community education were undertaken; one with the Tennessee Valley Authority and the other in Flint, Michigan, in direct co-operation with the Mott Foundation. The former was a federally-financed endeavour established to alleviate the poor conditions of life within the southern rural communities. The content of these schools emphasized lifelong learning which met the needs of the people, and not necessarily for the youth. Here, education in such communities was broadly defined in that efforts were made to improve the quality of life within the rural setting.

However, the Flint Community Education Program demonstrates the early practical conception of community schools in the United States.

The program component of these schools started in 1935 when a rich industrialist, Charles Mott, donated $6,000 to the Flint Public schools. Essentially, this fund was utilized to help local communities make better use of the school and community facilities. It is believed that the Flint schools are still recipients of donations from Mott Foundations. These charitable donations assisted the local School Board in Flint in providing adequate facilities in terms of educational, social and recreational activities to both the schools and the communities. Those models developed by the Flint schools provided the standard which American educators emulate when designing and planning new community schools.

There are two administrative characteristics which distinguished the Flint schools from other schools at the time of their establishment: (a) the leader, who co-ordinates normal and extended programs and activities of the school; and (b) the advisory committee which consists of representatives of the teaching staff, local business sector, the clergy, students, and interested citizens. The function of the committee is to represent the felt needs of the neighborhood to the school administration and recommend possible means of dealing with them.

Canadian Experience. In Canada, these administrative styles are employed in community schools in order to facilitate school-community relations and to ensure that the school services the neighborhood. However, the degree to which these styles are utilized may vary from one school to another as community needs vary considerably.

Some Canadian scholars maintain that the concept of a community

school is the regeneration of the popular idea of the "Lighted Schoolhouse", which started in the prairie provinces in the 1930s. The Lighted Schoolhouse was usually a one-room local school, which acted as a community activity centre. Such a concept, of course, fails to meet the philosophical criteria of the 1980s community school:

> First, the Lighted Schoolhouse was used as a community meeting place in the evenings and this function had little or no effect on the day program for children. Secondly, people who were reached through evening programs were usually those who constantly took advantage of other resources in their neighborhood and probably had the least need of extra activities. Finally, the Lighted Schoolhouse failed to stimulate community action (Prout, 1977:10).

People who advocate community schools today consider it a means by which the neighborhood could initiate and deal with socially felt needs, with the evening programs being a fraction of the total school curriculum. The objective common to all community schools in Canada is to rekindle community spirit and cohesiveness through its programs.

> An overview of Canadian literature reveals that community schools begin by offering "activities" courses for adults and senior citizens in the community. Typically, these courses are avocational and recreational and they are conducted by volunteers from within the community. Participants in these programs usually pay a registration fee to cover administrative costs. In many cases, school boards assist these programs by meeting additional maintenance costs. When this is not the case, people have to pay a higher registration fee (Prout, 1977:11).

Specifically, community schools originated in Canada in the late 1960s and 1970s, when some people opposed the idea of a school being a mere training centre for the future job-seeker. As Living and Learning illustrates:

> The changing patterns of living, of working and of recreation require that the educational system prepare the children of tomorrow to live in a world vastly different from that of this

> generation. There must be education for leisure time, for a more mature culture, and for a greater sense of personal responsibility and the curriculum must be designed accordingly (Mang, 1978:1-2).

Thus, in Canada, the North Vancouver School System in British Columbia seems to have pioneered the implementation of community schools. Under the leadership of Jack Stevens, the Queen Mary Elementary School became, in 1971, British Columbia's (or possibly Canada's) first fully developed community school. However, the concept did receive some attention in other Canadian provinces, although the concern at that time is still limited in scope.

In the province of Alberta, for instance, amendments were made to the Municipal Government Act and the School Act of 1966, and provisions were built into the Recreation Development Act of 1967 to allow the joint use of school and community facilities. Similarly, joint use schemes started in Ontario and Nova Scotia.

Practically, it was not until the early and middle 1970s, however, that the concept of community school/community education emerged in Canada. For example, the Queen Mary Elementary School in Vancouver started as a community school in 1971. During the same year, the province of Alberta initiated a major step toward the implementation of the concept of community schools when the Education Department accepted a policy of awarding credit for work experience to high school students and maintained that better integration of the school and the community would be achieved if the leader in the community school is designated as the co-ordinator. In 1972, however, the provincial Departments of Education, Advanced Education and Culture, Youth and Recreation decided

to jointly sponsor a Community-School Co-ordinator Trial Project. This project was effected in many communities and the funding came from the three provincial departments (50 percent of the costs), the School Board (25 percent), and the Municipal Council (25 percent). This fund was made available for a trial period of three years in order to meet the salary and associated costs of each co-ordinator. In 1974, the provincial Department of Culture, Youth and Recreation started Project Co-operation in which grants were made available under the Recreation Development Act, in order to facilitate the development of community schools, and essentially to promote the activities of the community school co-ordinators.

There were other activities which were locally initiated and executed involving local communities and the School Boards. For example, in 1968, a local advisory board at Langevin School in Calgary, operated evening programs at the school by utilizing volunteer teachers and co-ordinators, and the services of the City of Calgary Recreation Department. Three years later, this experiment in the joint use of school facilities developed into what is now known as the Langevin Community School, which has support from the City of Calgary, the Calgary Public School Board and the provincial government departments.

In the past fourteen years, there have been two important legislative changes which facilitated the enhancement of community education and community schools in Alberta. First, in 1966, there were changes in the Recreation Department Act, the Municipal Government Act, and the School Act, which allowed for the joint use of community facilities. This legislation allowed the local recreation boards and the

School Board to enter into agreements which provided for reciprocal use of available facilities. For example, the School Board could use the local curling rink, if it had not been previously booked, and similarly, the Recreation Board could use the gymnasium of the local school if it were not in use. Secondly, in 1971, another important legislative change occurred. The Department of Education adopted a policy of giving credit to high school students for work experience. These two legislative changes helped to link the school with its neighborhood. Also in the same year, the position of the community school co-ordinator was created. This co-ordinator was to assume the role of facilitator in determing community needs and arranging suitable ways of satisfying those needs.

At the end of 1972, three provincial departments (Department of Education, Department of Advanced Education and Manpower, and the Department of Recreation, Parks and Wildlife) jointly agreed to fund a Community School Co-ordination Trial Project over a three-year period. These three departments were to work co-operatively with local school boards in implementing the community school concept. It was agreed that the three departments would contribute $7,000 toward the annual salary and associated costs of a community school co-ordinator. The local hosting authorities (School Boards and Recreation Boards) were to jointly match up the government's contribution. Thus, $14,000 was designated as the salary and associated costs of a community school co-ordinator. Currently, the provincial government is supporting the community school concept, as the quotation below illus-

strates:

> The province will pursue its community school programme position on an interdepartmental basis...Community schools operate best when there has been extensive teacher and community involvement in their planning and implementation. The province is prepared to help with this planning process. Once a school has completed the necessary preparation, through its sponsoring School Board and Municipality, it may be eligible for additional operational grants. These grants are designed to offset added leadership, secretarial and community-use costs associated with the effective functioning of a community school. Grants will be designed to fit local conditions. Normally the maximum grants for a community school will not exceed $51,500 per annum. The province has budgeted to support thirty community schools in 1980/81... (Alberta Education, 1980:1-2).

In Edmonton, the concept of community education and community schools has been receiving recognition and support over the past fourteen years. For example, in 1970, M. E. LaZerte, Sacred Heart, and Spruce Avenue schools were officially designated as community schools. The first two schools have continued to be active in implementing the community school concept and are distinguished as the only schools in Edmonton with functioning community school co-ordinators directly supported by the School Boards. Equally important, the Provincial Steering Committee on Adult Education has recognized the role schools could play in facilitating lifelong learning experiences of the schools. In 1972-75, three schools were selected for a three-year trial project. These included Hardisty Junior High in Edmonton, the Regional High School in St. Paul, and Matthew Halton Senior High in Pincher Creek. However, out of these three, only Matthew Halton has survived as a community school, while St. Paul has modified its curriculum to emphasize co-operation with local agencies. Hardisty High has changed its community orientation to a more public school philo-

sophy due to the fact that it failed to obtain financial support for its operation. Since 1979, Dunluce, Evansdale, McDougall, Norwood, St. Edmund/Calder, St. Mary, St. Michael, Strathearn and Thorncliffe have community school co-ordinators funded by Project Co-operation. Provincial Project Co-operation, a committee established in 1974, includes representatives from the Edmonton Public School Board, Edmonton Separate School Board, and Edmonton Parks and Recreation. The Community School concept in Edmonton has been implemented in a different way in each school, depending on principal and staff commitments, co-ordinators' backgrounds, neighborhood conditions, and perceived school and community needs.

SUMMARY

From the foregoing discussions, one may deduce that community education is the philosophical basis of educational development while community schools become the instrument for facilitating such development. Participation and delivery of human services are the process components which distinguish community schools from public schools. Minzey and LeTarte, 1979; Reiss, 1965; and Dewey, 1915, have provided us with some theoretical and philosophical justifications on how our schools should help to solve human problems. This literature suggests the immediate need for bureaucracy in schools to be decentralized in order to meet the needs of our changing society. Each indicates that the client system (the children, parents and interested citizens) and the school administration have something to gain if both co-operate for the common endeavor (solution of educational and community problems).

This is to say that involving the community in the decision-making of the school will, in the long run, enrich the quality of education within the academic and social settings. For Reiss, community schools should have specific neighborhood involvement in order not to disrupt educational objectives. Similarly, Baker sums up what Dewey means by democracy in community schools:

> ...for Dewey, schools should be organized as a form of community life centering in method and content about the typical occupations of men...for schooling must be what education would be in the society with an integrated culture where all of the institutions of society were freely participated in by all men and served the full development of all human personalities. In other words, schooling must be what education would be in a truly democratic society. It follows that schooling must proceed in a social setting, this setting is not supplied by individuals pursuing independent ends in mere physical proximity with others; it must be a setting, as with any group we call society, in which the members engage basically in common enterprises, no matter what variations are introduced. And, if it is to be a democratic social situation, it must be one in which all members share in making decisions that affect them (Baker, 1965: 133-134).

More specifically, balance theory appears appropriate in the determination of how much input is required from the neighborhood in the school decision-making processes.

CHAPTER III

MODELS OF COMMUNITY EDUCATION: AN INTERNATIONAL COMPARISON

This chapter will focus on community education models employed in the Chinese primary school, the Tanzanian primary school, the Cuban primary school, and the North American Elementary school. Similarities and differences among them will be discussed and relevant literature, as well as statistical information, will be presented when necessary. The reader is reminded that China, Tanzania and Cuba are rural and under-developed countries which employ community education models on a national level (macro implementation), while in North America, the concept is state/provincially implemented through community schools (micro implementation).

Chinese Primary School Model. This model, based on community education concepts, emerged in China at the end of the Cultural Revolution of 1968. In that year, the National government started a compulsory Nine Year Basic Education Program, aimed at improving the educational level of the entire country. It implemented a free educational policy to include grades seven to nine. This program resulted in an increase in the number of school districts, increased school construction, reduction of tuition fees at the public junior high schools, and the establishment of primary schools at the village level. Equally important at this period, curriculum and textbooks were designed and selected in order to emphasize Chinese ethics, civics, science and technology. By 1975, about

2.4 million students were enrolled in 2,376 elementary schools, out of which twenty-four were operated by the country and municipal governments. The remaining 2,352 elementary schools were run and operated by the central government. The enrolment rate of these students was 99.3 percent, second only to Japan, and the ratio of elementary school graduates entering junior middle schools jumped to 88.6 percent, an increase of 56.5 percent over 1950.

From that period to the present, all the educational institutions, including the Chinese primary schools, have emphasized the utility of knowledge in relation to helping one another, as an ultimate objective of schooling. For example, productive labor, self-reliance, and devotion to the people have all been brought into sharper focus by the Cultural Revolution. It is believed that prior to the Cultural Revolution, the intake of most schools tended to favor the sons and daughters of the cadres (the elite), but priority is now given to the children of peasants, workers, and the People's Liberation Army. As Ray Wylie put it:

> As a result of the Cultural Revolution, the educational system has been reorganized from top to bottom, in a way far more thorough and radical than in 1952...The dual hierarchy of "bourgeois" academic authorities and Party committees in the schools has been abolished. Education, like administration, is now decentralized and placed under a new horizontal pattern of leadership (Wylie, (Ed.), 1972: 38-39).

The models employed in Chinese primary schools are based on a simplification of Marxist-Leninist theories, which stress co-operative endeavor. Here the school is no longer designed as a means of gaining status and power but rather the educational system trains students how

to serve the people. Student participation and critical thinking are encouraged at the primary school level. As Edmonds illustrates:

> It ensures the very quality of learning, based on co-operative enterprise, on continually relating to practice, and on the supremely effective motivation of serving the people... Aspects of curriculum that might encourage individual expression, so much valued in British schools, are generally approached with more inhibition. In writing, objectivity and analytic skill are the qualities most aimed for, and in painting, emphasis is on exact representation (Manger, et. al., 1972:42-43).

One may argue that the Chinese primary schools (both urban and commune) are community schools in that their basic contents emphasize the felt needs of the neighborhood. For instance, the philosophy proposed by Mao Tse-tung in 1926 that Chinese educational goals should enhance the welfare of the workers, peasants, soldiers and small urban clerks, has been currently advanced to meet the Chinese situation. This philosophy is being implemented in Chinese schools (including primary schools), by making the rural mass population realize the importance of collective effort, involving all the children, teachers and others, in helping each other. Specifically, schools here are engaged in the revolution of the masses and not of the few elite. One may disagree by citing the reasoning that Chinese schools are engaged in nationalistic educational goals, but this is not necessarily so because China sees development as improvement which reaches the grassroots (workers, peasants, soldiers, and small urban clerks who make up 90 percent of the Chinese population). Also, I think that if all the nations of the world adopted the Chinese interpretation of the educational goal, namely: helping one another, there may be less global discomfort as all the communities of the world will be developed.

China's Community School After the Cultural Revolution

Since the end of the Cultural Revolution, most regions are engaged in achieving universal primary education under a four to six years trial period. The strategies used to implement such a policy are as follows:

First, the Chinese brought educational facilities closer to the villages and rural areas where the population density is high, so that the children of the poor can attend school without leaving the villages or brigades. Prior to 1966, the primary schools operated on a centralized basis. Children from rural areas travelled long distances to the district towns or went to schools as boarders, which peasant families could not afford. Primary schools are now located within walking distance which permits children from lower class families to be educated.

Secondly, at the end of the Cultural Revolution, funds deemed for education were reallocated. The authorities spread funds from urban to rural primary schools in such a way that village schools were provided with more funds, while urban primary schools were financed by the municipality, the county and/or the commune. Before 1966, the Chinese central government tended to fund only the large key schools in the urban centres, whereas after the Cultural Revolution, educational funding was concentrated on poor rural schools which cannot support themselves.

Thirdly, schools, particularly secondary schools and universities, are now expected to run their own productive labor factories, as

in farms and workshops, in order to help finance their own expenses.

Fourthly, Chinese schools in most cases employ a flexible timetable which suits the felt needs of their communities. Some operate on half-day guidelines while others function alternatively, as holidays are fixed in respect to farming seasons of the community. One important accomplishment of the present Chinese educational system is the government policy which requires that every student, upon graduation, serve a two to three year term of productive labor in rural brigades or in urban factories (though this term is now being reduced). Such policy, when enforced, makes school graduates realize that education should not only reflect urban employment but rather opportunities that are a preparation for serving the people whenever there is the need.

> The local communities, especially the production brigades and the people's communes, had to take a much larger share than hitherto. In order to bring about the new kind of co-operating relationship, education had to be neatly integrated into the political overall process of the local communities. Thus the new educational policy was designed to involve as many responsible people in educational affairs as possible... The most common practice today seems to be the production brigades (generally identical with a natural village), run their own primary schools while the people's communes are responsible for rural secondary education. In the cities, primary schools are usually run by street committees and secondary schools by factories. This means that apart from party cadres, and teachers, poor and lower-middle peasants, as well as workers, take a large part in the local decision-making by the schools' control committees (Robson, et. al., ed., 1975:73).

Educational institutions in China, including the primary schools, employ such policies which emphasize Chinese content, co-operative efforts, and the ability to analyze issues critically. Such phil-

osophies have their origins in Mao Tse-tung's writing.

> The philosophy of letting a hundred flowers blossom and a hundred schools of thought contend, is designed to promote the flourishing of the arts and science; it is designed to enable a socialist culture to thrive in our land. Different forms and styles in art can develop freely and different schools in science can contend freely. We think it is harmful to the growth of art and science if administrative measures are used to impose one particular style of art or school of thought and to ban another (Fremantle, ed., 1962:285).

It is generally accepted in China that education is a means to change the characteristics of the rural majority. Over the past years, Chinese educational policies have experienced tremendous changes, but the basic aim of providing all the children in China with four to six years of elementary schooling has not changed over the last one quarter century. Although China has not yet achieved universal primary education, it has performed far better than other developing countries, and it is estimated that 90 percent of primary school age children are now attending school.

> Numbers are not available, but perhaps as many as 20 percent of the graduates of rural primary schools go on to middle agricultural schools to assume eventually some of the more responsible positions in agriculture, local industry, administration, health, education and so forth. The main point here is that because most of the rural youth in China are now literate and because they are supplemented by large numbers of better educated urban youth who are sent down to the country-side, the rural young adult is much better educated and more socially aware than the average peasant in other developing countries (Maxwell, ed., 1979:107).

The important lesson which Third World countries can learn from the Chinese model of education is that schools in China emphasize preparation for hard work. This is to say that in China, schools are de-

signed to serve the interests of the society, as opposed to other developing countries where schools prepare students for white collar jobs. Primary schools in China offer formal political courses in education in order to enable students to grasp the revolution and to realize the need of an unrelenting class struggle. Equally important in the Chinese community school is that academic subjects are taught in direct relation to the production needs of industry, agriculture, and society in general. The students learn in school farming skills and techniques which are useful for an effective and efficient agricultural industry.

The Tanzanian Educational Model

Tanzania experienced its first revolution in education for both primary and secondary schools during the Arusha Declaration of Socialism and Self-Reliance in 1967. Before this period, Tanzanian primary schools employed models which prepared the recipients for white collar jobs associated with urban luxury (tie, radiogram and car). In other words, the purpose of the primary-secondary system during the colonial period was to produce useful civil servants who know what to do when told. This has led to the practice in most primary schools in Africa, and specifically in Tanzania at that time, of teaching what is to be tested rather than testing what has been taught. The consequence of such a model was that children were prepared for something they will never achieve (an exit from poor rural society to developed urban life). Further, this led people to label primary school leavers who had not been chosen for secondary schools as failures. If this is the

situation, one may say that most of the effort, funds, manpower, and buildings, have been wasted.

However, the Arusha Declaration advanced a model of primary and secondary education based on co-operation. School content was re-organized to meet the felt needs of the community. Emphasis drifted from theoretical knowledge, based on memory work, to practical skills needed for agriculture.

> President Nyerere has called upon the educational system to assist the country in achieving its policy of self-reliance. Self-reliance is the key word in the Arusha Declaration and must also guide all efforts to make Tanzania's primary education more appropriate, more efficient, more influential, more national and more useful...What is needed, as President Nyerere has urged, is a revolution in education. The message of the educational system should be: learn so that you will pass into a better life on the land and in the villages (Resnick, 1968: 233-234).

The guiding principle for education from primary schools to universities in Tanzania is community co-operative work (Ujamaa). Tanzania, like China, assumes the responsibility of providing adequate, as well as appropriate, education in order to use such knowledge in the rural villages. Such a model calls for the learning of appropriate skills in farming as part of the school's curriculum, so that the students contribute effectively to the agricultural industry, since the national population is 90 percent farmers. What the Tanzanian government has done in primary education is to make the entire population realize that the educational system belongs to the whole community, in practice as well as in theory. Primary schools vocational education centres have agriculture as their main focus where the school's goal is to integrate practical farming with theory. What has been done here is a process of

educational self-help, with each community being allowed to devise the program which suits its needs best. In these schools, the question of curriculum development, provision of teachers and facilities, and the provision of financial support, when needed, are the responsibility of the government, while local initiatives are encouraged.

The community school model in Tanzania is based on the education of the rural majority who lack appropriate skills for agricultural and industrial work. This means that students are no longer trained for non-existent jobs; rather, they are given adequate training for relevant occupations which exist within the villages of the nation. Education in Tanzania since the "Arusha Declaration" has been redefined as a learning process for every individual (male and female, adults and children) within the rural communities. For example, one of the post-Arusha socialist development policies was the establishment of co-operative villages (Ujamaa villages), with primary schools established in each of them. The schools here assume the responsibility for providing local skill training as well as making the people aware of the essence of co-operative communities where people live together, and work together, for the good of all involved. The basic function of school is to provide needed knowledge to the community, which illustrates that education in Tanzania reaches the grassroots. As George Manuel, et. al., state:

> Here were a people who were fortunate enough in their leadership to realize that political independence was not the coming of the Messiah; it was only the beginning of the struggle for economic and social self-sufficiency. Political independence only gave them the tools of sovereignty with which to begin to build their nation, as

> Julius Nyerere finds a way of reminding his audience of this every time he speaks. He tells the students graduating from the university that their studies have been made possible through the labor of the common people in the village. Now that they have completed their studies, they have a debt to pay. They must return the knowledge to the people who send them to find it...Of all the models of economic and social development that I have seen, Tanzania is the closest example to my understanding of the way that Indian people want to develop. The material goals are not really any different from those of middle-class urban Canadians. It is the structure and style and economic organization that allows the whole community to share in those good things, and to decide which are the higher priorities in moving toward that ultimate goal, that distinguishes the Fourth World (Manuel, et. al., 1974: 244-246).

The model of education in Tanzania is designed to produce dynamic and skilled workers who should participate in the co-operative enterprises of individual communities.

The strategy employed aims at attacking vigorously one of the key factors in underdevelopment, namely, the misuse of people. Tanzania believes that in order to develop, it must have a considerable proportion of trained and educated citizens, including not only professionals (doctors, engineers, scientists, and the like), but also a new class sufficiently large, and strong, to establish its own value of justice, merit, flexibility and efficiency.

In Tanzania, community development and rural extension have been carried out by the schools in order to raise the quality of rural life. The government sector, for instance, has used its skill to persuade people that they could save their children who die in infancy; that they could have more to eat; and that they really are equal citizens of a country which is on the move. While the activities of the community-

type school would do much to raise the general quality of rural life and to improve the level of citizenship, specific concentration has been on the development of agriculture. For example, the government provided incentives needed to induce students to train as agricultural scientists and other rural specialists. It also promoted the teaching of science and agriculture at various levels of schooling, including community schools. Primary schools in Tanzania offer farmers as much education in farming as possible, through both extension work and, where feasible, through short courses of instruction. These measures are expected to have the effect of improving farming and absorbing personnel who would help it to improve further, to the advantage of all communities. Tanzania has recognized the problems of its poor economy and is now engaged in preparing the manpower which will make the solutions possible, through the school system. As Boesen states,

> ...Instead, we should gradually become a nation of Ujamaa villages where the people co-operate directly in small groups and where these groups co-operate together for joint enterprise...It is a question of education. And it is a question of all of us together making a reality of the principles of equality and freedom which are enshrined in our policy of Tanzanian socialism (Boesen, 1976:1)

The community school here builds its philosophy on pulling resources together for the improvement of all involved. This is seen as a means to change the "status quo" which hindered economic and social progress of Tanzania before the "Arusha Declaration."

The Cuban Educational Model

I shall now discuss the benefits associated with the Cuban educational model. It must be noted that the term "community" school in

Cuba is interpreted as "mass education" and "education for economic development."

Before Castro came to power, schools in Cuba were not functioning to perpetuate the status quo (contributing to the maintenance of the elite), but were showing in themselves to be forces for economic stagnation. For example, built-in discrimination applied not only to the content of education, but also to its function. Primary schools were viewed essentially as preparing pupils not for useful or remunerative functions in society but for executive urban jobs. Equally important to this period, teaching was abstract and learning was by memory. The short-run goal of both teaching and learning was to pass examinations, while the long-run objective was the blind accumulation of knowledge that had no immediate application.

> When Fidel Castro took power in January 1959, the revolutionary government emphasized two educational goals: to make education available to all, and to transform education into a force for economic development (Gillette, 1971:7).

To enforce these objectives, the revolutionary government first nationalized all the private schools in Cuba in 1961. It was immediately decided that all schools in Cuba should have an "open door" policy which would serve all citizens irrespective of class, race, sex, or ability to pay the fees, so that educational opportunities would reach the grassroots.

Educational revolution in Cuba differs from other Third World countries in two basic ways. First, the revolution is not only concerned with making schooling a basic human right, but it makes learn-

ing an effective reality. This is done by using integrated curricula which emphasize Cuban content. Second, the revolution goes on to change the country's colonial mentality towards education. During that time, learning was not seen as an optional process but rather it was accepted as an essential ingredient for development. In other words, education became a vital national necessity, a duty as well as a right for every Cuban. The most interesting aspect of education in Cuba is that learning is not limited to formal schooling, but a learning process which benefits the entire population. Here educational institutions are designed to prepare and supply the needed manpower for national development.

One may argue that when the revolutionary government came to power, it undertook educational transformation from economic stagnation into a movement of economic development. Thus, school programs shifted from theoretical to practical training in order to meet the short supply of skilled workers. In this sense, Cuba has successfully reorganized its educational system in order to transmit new skills and attitudes about science and technology to the people.

> The mass education offensive proceeded into both formal schooling and out-of-school education. Overall enrolment in primary schools increased between 1957 and 1962 by more than two-thirds, rising from 737,000 (including private school pupils) to 1,253,000, all in state schools...First grade enrolments jumped from 185,000 in 1958-59 to 457,544 in 1962. By 1970-71, the primary school population had swelled to 1,652,700 (Fagen, 1974:15).

In Cuba, non-formal education has been instituted to offer programs for both adults and children. Some of these programs will be briefly discussed in order to illustrate that the educational system in Cuba is

alleviating the felt needs of the communities.

Federation of Cuban Women: This organization is made up of about one million women across Cuba, and offers various kinds of programs. Its basic function is to establish and supervise day care centres for working parents. It is believed that continuing education programs and parent meetings, either during lunch hours or in the evenings, make up the activities of day care centres.

Interest Circles: These are "interest groups" created in secondary institutions to explore off-school activities. For instance, some of these groups concern themselves with neighborhood production projects.

> Most interest circles are related to production activities in the community, for example, groups for electricity, agriculture, mechanics, soil, food chemistry, animal sciences, meteorology, oceanography and construction. Co-operating agencies such as hospitals, factories, and laboratories, work with the interest circles on intervisitations, advice and leadership. Cuban educators see these circles as important connections between curriculum and ultimate vocational choice...(Ahmed and Combs, (Eds.) 1975:67).

Peer Group Teaching: This is a program which allows pupils to learn from one another. The students select among themselves who should assume the responsibility of a class leader (monitor). The task of a class leader is to help his fellow students solve either in-school or off-school assignments. In other words, this program offers an opportunity for students who have learning problems to learn from the student teachers.

The Padrino System: This is a device which permits the neighborhood to have maximum input in the school system. It calls upon an

industry to provide certain voluntary services to a particular school on a co-operative basis. This organization interacts with the school in such a way that it not only provides maintenance services to the school, but it helps students, parents, and citizens to realize the importance of education. These programs provide unskilled youngsters with basic educational skills such as writing, reading, and industrial skills.

Special Youth Programs: Non-formal programs of this nature are designed to meet the educational goals of youngsters who dropped out of school early. Here the students are prepared through a combination of study and work. This is to say that the students who may not fit into regular studies are given a chance to learn specific trades which will be useful for agricultural and industrial production.

The Literacy Campaign: One of the outstanding educational achievements of Cuba has been the decrease in illiteracy. For example, in 1961 when the Literacy Campaign was enforced in all parts of Cuba, the population of uneducated Cubans dropped from twenty-five percent to about four percent.

> 'Death to illiteracy will be the number one goal of 1961', was the call of the first Congress of the Municipal Councils of Education in October 1960. Schools were closed during the campaign and most of the 105,000 full-time volunteers were recruited from adolescent students...After eight months of intensive effort, the illiteracy rate in Cuba dropped to 3.9 percent before the campaign (Fagen, 1965:33-68).

One may ask whether the availability of these programs has facilitated improvement for the people. The obvious answer is 'yes' in terms of providing jobs for the people and in the maintenance of the

social welfare of Cubans. By achieving as nearly as possible universal adult literacy and mass basic education of children and adults, the Cuban revolution demonstrated its commitment to radical educational change, and has maintained policies which favor the peasant majority.

In addition to literacy and follow-up campaigns, there are worker-farmer improvement courses which enable those with minimal education to continue up to the sixth grade. More specifically tied to technical training are the minimum technical courses organized basically in the factories. They give both theoretical and practical training to workers on the job. Along with these major programs are a host of other courses tailored to the needs of rural peasants with specific needs. For example, people's schools catered to small craftsmen (such as shoemakers) whose trades are being industrialized, and seminars are held in sugar mills and in other enterprises, to teach administration to workers and employees who may assume management positions when the need arises. As Jaime Suchlicki cites:

> As for rural people who had been without schools, the regime provided for the education of thousands of rural children by bringing them to Havana on full scholarships that included housing, board, clothing, schooling, and medical care. The literacy campaign of 1961, according to the official report, taught over 700,000 adults, most of them in rural areas, to read and write... Both education and medical care were declared free to the population, these are the areas of most dramatic improvement. (Suchlicki, (Ed.), 1972:54-87).

Here the schools, though not literally called "community schools", function as community schools. Precisely, the content of Cuban schools emphasizes the felt needs of the aggregate society (Cuba). For instance, programs and activities of illiteracy campaigns, curbing the

school drop-out rate; relating theory to practice; students helping each other in problem solving, and the like, are illustrations of how schools are facilitating development in Cuba. Cuba no longer depends on foreign markets to feed its population, rather the school turns out the needed skilled and semi-skilled workers for agricultural and industrial production. The schools emphasize the importance of collective work, as in the Chinese and Tanzanian schools.

North American Community Education Model

The models of education which are used in American elementary schools were initially developed by Flint community schools in Michigan, and later expanded theoretically by Minzey and LeTarte. Such models emphasize the traditional public school programs as well as introduce process components which meet community needs. In other words, community schools in North America maintain the philsophy of community education whose important ingredients are in programs and process. Usually the school programs include the regular school program (for grades 1 - 12), joint use of school and community facilities, additional programs for school age children and youth, and programs for adults. Similarly, the process components involve delivery and co-ordination of social services, and neighborhood participation in their schools. Some proponents of the community education concept have stressed the need for community schools to have both programs and process in order to enhance the desired neighborhood development. What appears significant in American community schools is that the community is brought into the school through the programs and are involved in the decision-mak-

ing which affects their lives through the school process. For example, one of the characteristics which distinguishes the American community school from the Chinese, Tanzanian and Cuban schools is that the former attempts to implement both program and process, while the latter implement only the programs. Here in American schools, community schools assume the testing ground position as well as the catalyst which facilitates neighborhood development. However, there is no single development plan which is appropriate for all American community schools in that some communities may give priority to process components (delivery and co-ordination of social services, and community participation), while others may prefer program components. In general, the most frequently employed technique is to first implement use of facilities for adults and youths (program component) and gradually introduce the process components to the school. The important point here is that the community education concept which some American schools (community schools) administer, is made up of six educational and social components. The ultimate goal for the implementation of such components in community schools is to alleviate neighborhood problems. Precisely what community schools are attempting to do in America is to re-establish the characteristics of a simple community, such as a sense of belonging, community solidarity, co-operation in the solution of common problems, and the like.

Ideally, community schools in America use all available school-community resources in providing community-oriented programs, including the K-12 program, basic education and high school completion pro-

grams for adults; and they involve all citizens in democratically determining such programs. These activities, and the sense of community which community schools attempt to foster, are the most commom characteristics of American community schools.

Similarities and Differences Between Models

From the foregoing discussions, one can deduce that the four models employed by China, Tanzania, Cuba, and North America have something in common. The area of agreement is in the schools orientation towards the felt needs of its neighborhood. Citizens, teachers, administration, and the students, are made to realize that the school is theirs by providing programs and activities relevant to all. In each of these societies, neighborhood involvement is seen as a prerequisite for implementing the community school concept. In China, Tanzania, and Cuba, for example, the community school model is used to overcome the problems of the dual hierarchy in academia, by educating the majority of peasants that co-operative work is healthier than individualized work. The three nations hope to minimize the high illiteracy population by using community school models which emphasize education for all.

In North America, the community school stresses for all ages, all classes, all sexes, and all ethnic origins, that learning is a continuous process. The model used here is based on participatory democracy where the school administration, the school board, the Department of Recreation, the teaching staff, parents, interested citi-

zens, and the students, are involved in making decisions which are relevant to them as a community. This calls for reciprocal use of school-community facilities which facilitates the improvement of the people within the community.

The differences among the four models may be twofold, namely, in social class and in the strategy of implementation. In the first place, the community schools in China, Tanzania and Cuba have mixed class values (upper, middle and lower classes), and their schools are primarily concerned with specific programs and processes which enforce the Marxist teachings by creating an integrated and unalienated human being. Conversely, in North America, the community school serves middle-lower class citizens which may include skilled and semi-skilled workers, and/or citizens on welfare programs. The class distinction between the four societies (China, Tanzania, Cuba and America) requires different strategies of implementation as illiteracy in the first three societies is higher than in North American society. China, Tanzania and Cuba used to make the peasants accept the concept of community school. This was due to the fact that uneducated farmers had limited knowledge of the available information on community schools. Thus the use of strategic force to implement the community school concept may be acceptable.

On the other hand, North American middle-class clients of community schools are more educated than their Chinese, Tanzanian and Cuban counterparts. Information about the community school concept is readily available to them, and they may make better decisions on the subject

than uneducated peasants from Third World countries. Equally of interest is that North American public policy is based on democratic principles, hence the implementation of the community school model is based on democracy. This is to say that the strategy used in the implementation of the community school concept in North America is democratically selected and designed by the community, while in China, Tanzania and Cuba, the decision is made by the government and imposed on the peasants.

Generally speaking, many of the differences between the four models of community schools may be attributed to the cultural, political and/or social differences between societies. Thus, the American community school model is designed to meet the American situation, whereas the Chinese, Tanzanian and Cuban school models emphasize Chinese, Tanzanian and Cuban social felt needs. In other words, the educational aims of China, Tanzania and Cuba are to democratize schooling, to make it a force for economic development, and to shape a new socialist man. These three societies see schools as a strategic social philosophy which, when sufficiently executed, will generate the needed labor force for economic development. For Americans, the community school means a neighborhood process by which the school and the community can efficiently and effectively utilize the available school and community resources for the improvement of the people.

Summary

Community education (macro concept) in China, Tanzania and Cuba, and community schools (micro concept) in North America, are involved

in the development of their communities. For instance, China, through its Cultural Revolution, Tanzania, through its Arusha Declaration, and Cuba, through its Educational Revolution, are all fighting illiteracy, and above all, are creating jobs for the majority of the unemployed. Equally significant to these three countries is that the schools and social services are carried to the rural areas where the majority of the population lives. In each of these societies, the schools are planned and designed to meet the felt needs of their people. Similarly, community schools in North America are making their neighborhoods feel better in areas of ultimate concern. For example, programs and process are being designed to help alleviate the felt needs of the community.

Thus, community education in China, Tanzania and Cuba, and community schools in North America, are facilitating the improvement of people (community development). Specifically, China, Tanzania and Cuba appear to be among the few countries in the Third World whose educational systems emphasize the training of adequate and appropriate skills of the people for development. In each situation, schools and social services are established in rural villages where the grassroots are encouraged to develop potential rather than relying on foreign markets for technology and technicians. As Stavrianos summarizes:

> Unprecedented social experimentation and innovation is under way in many parts of the Third World today. Examples are Tanzania, where President Nyerere has a monthly salary of $570 and no car of his own, where the politicians do not get rich, and where an African democratic socialism stresses rural development in the Ujamma Villages, which are producers' co-operatives; Cuba, where according to Herbert L. Matthews, Fidel Castro is not giving Cubans the consumer goods and pros-

> perity they would like, but is giving them a great deal else they never had, such as honesty in government, excellent educational, medical and social services for every citizen, and almost full employment (Stavrianos, 1976:123).

In China, Tanzania, Cuba and North America, schools are channeling the theory of education into economic, social and cultural practices. In other words, irrespective of cultural differences, all four societies have realized the importance for teachers, pupils, the educational system, and parents, of the need to be integrated in relation to other elements of the social whole (the totality). Thus, community schools have opened up viable learning processes which benefit the people of China, Tanzania, Cuba and North America respectively.

CHAPTER IV

COMMUNITY SCHOOL AND COMMUNITY DEVELOPMENT: MINZEY AND LETARTE MODEL

The intent of this chapter is to discuss Minzey's and LeTarte's (1979) six components of a community school. Effort will be made to determine what distinguishes a community school from a typical public school (process versus programs), and to explain how a community school is facilitating community development.

The programs and process of a community school are composed of six components.

1. Educational Programs for School Age Children. A community school maintains programs for kindergarten, grades one to twelve. Here the kindergarten program is designed to assist children aged four and one-half to five and one-half in their emotional and social growth so as to develop physical co-ordination and perceptual skills, and to achieve the concepts and vocabulary that are fundamental to academic development. Similarly, grades one and two may have programs which emphasize a balance of academic, physical, cultural, social and emotional development. The programs are designed to alleviate problems associated with day school students. There may be some optional projects such as students helping one another in problem-solving, team activities, social club meetings, and the like.

2. Joint Use of School and Community Facilities. Community schools have several facilities which can be used by the neighborhood. These may include a library, staff room, gymnasium, stage and music

room, and audio-visual equipment. Similarly, the skating rink and tennis court may be owned by the Community League and the neighborhood school should take advantage of such facilities. Another community facility which may be jointly used is the local hospital. For example, the nursing staff may often demonstrate to the students and interested citizens the importance of first aid treatment. The neighborhood swimming pool may also be used by the Y.W.C.A. in teaching swimming to students and residents.

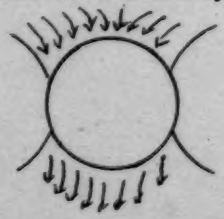
3. Additional Programs for Children and Youth. A community school should have additional programs for school age children and youth. Such programs and activities may include special education and language and mathematics resources for children with learning problems. Learning problems of this nature may be met by using tutors, senior citizens, or volunteer personnel. The function of such programs is intended to help school age children and youth to cope with their learning difficulties. In addition, the school may maintain some optional programs where the teachers teach their hobbies to students after school. The basic goal here is to make students feel special and prepare them for their future lives. Equally significant, the school may have "big brother/big sister" clubs which involve both sexes, youths and adults, in problem-solving activities, soccer, and baseball teams.

4. Adult Programs. Community groups may co-operate with the school in offering continuing education programs, volley ball, badminton, martial arts, keep fit classes, disco dancing, English as a

second language, and other social programs. Specific adult programs in a community school may vary as some communities may prefer educational workshops, lecture series on wills and estate planning, while others may assign priority to building workshops, women's rights and politics.

5. Delivery and Co-ordination of Community Services. This aspect of the school assumes a facilitator role in identifying neighborhood problems and available resources in order to ensure that social services reach the grassroots. However, the school must be cautioned not to offer programs which are already in existence, rather they should provide information to user groups. Similarly, the school has to provide information to the service agencies with regard to the neighborhood needs which are not adequately met. Figure II provides an insight into how a community school can assess neighborhood needs and delivery of co-ordinated services. Here the school authorities identify neighborhood needs through a social survey and inform the user groups of the available resources, and they may establish new programs which are not in existence.

Assessment of Community Needs



Information, Delivery of Co-ordinated Services

Figure II. A Community School's Brokerage of Services

6. Community Participation. This component of community education is crucial if the school is to maintain its status as a community school. For one reason, it involves the people in identifying common problems and means of solving them. For the other reason, it emphasizes that participation must be meaningful in that all the groups in the neighborhood school, should have equal representation when decisions concerning their lives are being considered. As Minzey and LeTarte state:

> The idea is to help persons who live in a particular neighborhood participate in the identity of local problems and to develop the process for attempting to solve such problems. (1979: 42).

In general, the program components of a community school include programs I to 4 and the process components are 5 and 6. When a neighborhood school has successfully achieved the implementation of these six components, the school is seen as developing the people.

Program Versus Process in a Community School

According to Minzey and LeTarte, the term "program" refers to particular activities of involvement by neighborhood members, whereas "process" denotes effective community involvement and interaction. Program, therefore, means school activities such as educational programs for school age children; joint use of school and community facilities; additional programs for school age children and youth; and adult programs. Process, on the other hand, involves delivery and coordination of community services, and community participation. As Minzey and LeTarte illustrate:

> ...the term refers to overt activities of participation by community members. Therefore, adult education, roller skating, townhall meetings, recreation, and enrichment classes are examples of community education programs. ...Therefore, when a school district adopts the concept of Community Education and implements it into their community, they are described as having a community education program. Thus, the term has been used to describe the specific activities of Community Education as well as the total concept. For the purpose of this discussion, the term program will be used to describe specific activities. The term process will be used to deal with more extensive community involvement and interaction (Minzey and LeTarte, 1979:37).

To gain a better understanding of programs, it appears necessary to seek their operational limits and how school process overcomes such limitations. The program component of a community school may alleviate several neighborhood needs, although it is doubtful if it will reach the grassroots.

> First, all people are not equally motivated to attend programs. Through timidity, suspicion, antagonism, lack of awareness, lethargy, and for numerous other reasons, many community members will not attend programs which they may want or need. In fact, many times community members are not aware of these things which may be of most benefit to them, and often, those most in need of services are least willing to avail themselves of existing opportunities. Therefore programs, at best, will serve a small percentage of the total population (Minzey and LeTarte, 1979:45).

Equally important, neighborhood problems tend to be individualistic and community school programs are not appropriate for their solution. Very often, interpersonal interaction is needed to solve personal problems which may not be necessarily met by school programs involving a large number of people at one time. Also, educators and social change scientists believe that people can positively change; that there can be a solution to most social problems; that people do have power; and

that people are willing to solve their own problems. This aspect illustrates the process component of community education which leads to the development of community self-actualization. Community self-actualization is defined by Minzey and LeTarte as:

> ...the ability of a community to become the best that it is capable of becoming. In essence, community self-actualization is aimed at community development to the point that community members are involved in identifying problems and working through a process which enables them to plan courses of action and carry through on possible solutions (Minzey and LeTarte, 1979:45).

A community school, therefore, becomes the base and assumes a facilitator role through which community education philosophy (program and process) is enhanced for the improvement of the neighborhood. The catalytic role of the community school in educational programs and processes of the people (neighborhood) distinguishes the community school from other public schools. This is done when the neighborhood meaningfully and effectively participates in designing and programming activities which meet their felt needs.

Community Schools and Community Development

"Community development" may be defined as a social process by which individuals of a given society become aware and realize their potential in controlling the local aspects of a frustrating and changing world. "Community development" is one basic approach to social change. Community development here will mean an institutional change through which the feelings of discontent within a given community are systematically and continuously improved by the people themselves.

According to Jim Lotz:

> Community development focuses on the process of enabling people collectively to achieve goals and to influence actions together, rather than as individuals...Community development, as a conscious technique or process, tries to involve people in open discussions of their problems on both personal and the community levels (Lotz, 1977:9).

What appears important in the definition of community development is that such improvement processes must involve the collectivity of individuals in an on-going interaction for the solution of the felt needs of those involved. As Roberts illustrates:

> Community development is an educational-motivational process designed to create conditions favourable to economic and social change, if possible on the initiative of the community, but if this initiative is not forthcoming spontaneously, then the techniques for arousing and stimulating it in order to secure the fullest participation of the community must be utilized (Roberts, 1979:176-177).

This process aspect of community education in community schools clearly represents the philosophy of community development. The similarities are in the areas of organization and encouragment of neighborhood groups for the achievement of community identity; higher motivation and knowledge of methods and techniques needed for problem-solving. They will also be exposed to successes and frustrations associated with co-operative efforts. It must be appreciated that the program and process of neighborhood schools are in themselves alleviating the felt needs of the community. For example, the school may maintain a two-way communication network between the school and the community through newsletters, public meetings, letters to parents and concerned citizens. Such interaction provides the school administration with the required feedback in order to plan and program

activities which meet the felt needs of the neighborhood.

The Role of Community School in Community Development

In order for community schools to foster community development, there appears a need for much public understanding about the school and what it is attempting to do. Understanding the community school concept can be superficial (as the Thorncliffe case study will later indicate) unless the people come into the school and become involved. In other words, people tend to support what they understand, and, to some degree, resist what they do not understand. However, there are three areas which the school needs to clarify to the citizens. These may include the general, technical and financial aspects of the school.

General Understanding

In county schools people are being made aware that the school policy is based upon the educational needs of adults, youth, and children. For instance, the development of attitudes, habit of industry, integrity, and high personal standards, are essential to the community. The proper understanding of health and health practices appear basic to some communities. Therefore, solutions to these problems can be met when there is a sense of solidarity which allows government agencies, the business sector, the private sector, and the ordinary man to participate on a meaningful and equal basis. When such an atmosphere is created, the school obviously becomes a resource centre for the entire community, because everyone who comes in has something to learn or teach. In this way, a lawyer will be

learning how to fix his car, a technician will learn how to obtain information on a variety of subjects, the nurse may offer nutritional courses to housewives, and the housewife may teach the nurse how to bring up children.

Technical Understanding. Here, citizens can be helped to understand that the actual teaching process is a technology and that special training is necessary for educators to carry out their technical responsibilities. Equally important, people should be made aware that teaching techniques change over time as society changes, which requires adjustment and adaptation by the learners. What appears significant here is that the neighborhood should be helped to realize that the programs and activities of community education which the school is fostering, meet the needs of its community. For example, it is easily assumed that the community school program and process are merely for recreational purposes, whereas in reality they provide excellent opportunities for youth and adults to learn leadership techniques and the democratic process. Physical types of activities can bring about a healthy consciousness that is sometimes not gained in a formal classroom situation. Athletic participation produces many good lessons about teamwork, fair play, and the value of striving for excellence. When one considers all the outcomes of music, art, and dramatic activities, one begins to appreciate how such characteristics as imagination, creativity, a sense of belonging, and the ability to co-operate, may be enhanced. A community school which effects programs and process of this nature is facilitating community development.

Financial Understanding. In county schools, most members of the client system do not know the actual sources of income for the community school. Here, it becomes the duty of the principal, coordinator and the staff to provide adequate information in understandable terms to the community.

In order to facilitate the sense of community identity in the school, the school authority should make clear the proportion and amount of school income which comes from the provincial Department of Culture, Youth and Recreation, the municipal government, and supporting organizations. Often people misunderstand the terminology connected with school financing. School staff members can help people understand the meaning of "tax rate," "tax levy," "mill," "assessed valuation," "operating cost," "capital outlay," and the like. Understanding what the school is doing and how the revenue is derived, is enhanced in good community schools through effective channels of communication.

Another way in which a community school can facilitate community development is by emphasizing in its content, sharing and interagency partnerships. Through sharing, the school and the community will benefit from economic and social resources which are in short supply within the community. For instance, in a rural community, a school may utilize the children in educating the adults, and vice versa. This is to say that a community should be designed in a way in which the people (youths or adults) are resourceful to one another. For example,

> By conceiving delinquency as a community problem as well as individual and family problems, it will allow the moral and material resources of a total city or school district to be organized to find solutions...The community school approach is a tested way of marshalling a neighborhood toward central goals since it has been effective in metropolitan St. Louis for five years and across the nation for about fifteen years (Metzner, 1974:40).

The community school in St. Louis, Missouri, utilized the resources of the local agency (Law Enforcement Assistance Council) and the teaching staff in reducing the high rate of youth delinquency. It becomes a community development activity when the school maintains a mutual philosophy which makes the government agencies, the business and private sectors, and the ordinary man, participate on an equal basis in areas of ultimate concern. Everyone in a community school has something new to learn or teach, which makes the school a learning process with a rewarding value.

> The community school starts with making the school a community centre. This school house which normally is open until 4 p.m. for school use, now becomes open until midnight, if needed, for community activities. These activities need not be night school classes, although these should be available. These activities will be anything that the people want to do - play cards, knit, play games, hear political speeches or...so, we bring the people into the school, get them involved in the potential use of the school (Anderson, 1969:3).

The concept of a community school helps the neighborhood identify its felt needs, organizes and assigns priority to these needs, and works collectively for the improvement of these problems. Such felt needs may not necessarily be met unless the community, through its school, work in collaboration for solutions. The agencies within a given community have much to benefit if they invest in a community

school concept, since the school will turn out potential government and social service workers for the former. In short, establishing reciprocal principles between the school and the community will, in the long run, reimburse group solidarity, a philosophy of community development.

It can be argued that community schools may facilitate the delivery of community social services. This may be accomplished either by involving the citizens through voluntary services or on a reimbursement basis. The former is more preferable in that it is efficient and makes people participate in solving the community-identified problems. In the process of delivering community services, the people will learn more about themselves, others, and their environment.

> It is difficult to see how any school that aspires to the title of community school can fail to bring social service within the curriculum. Only thus can investigation of the needs of a community become linked with planning to meet those needs...Children who work with old people should know something of the services that the Welfare State can offer; those who work with the physically and mentally handicapped must be helped to understand the limitations imposed by the handicap, its cause and the possibilities for cure or alleviation... Social service, then, requires both integration within the school situation and planned approach within the community ...(Poster, 1971:84-85).

Social service, therefore, becomes one of the functions of a community school where the people have the objective of improving the welfare of the less fortunate. Community schools, whether in a simple or a complex society, have much to offer its citizens. For instance, Dusara indicates how beneficial community schools have proven to be in the development of the Tanzanian peasants.

> It offers an opportunity for friendship, working together for the common good of the community, and for the children,

> there are many playing companions. The village assumes responsibility for the sick, older people, and orphan children; provides education for all its children, and in general, provides a strong sense of belonging with security (Dusara, 1975:45).

Thus, the school, by fulfilling the actual felt needs of the people (either by delivering community services, or by designing programs and projects to alleviate the problems), becomes a facilitator of community development.

SUMMARY

The implementation of the community school concept will definitely allow for the mobilization of resources towards the cohesive development of the neighborhood. The projects have enhanced the relationship between community organizations and the school in that the felt needs and concerns are no longer seen as problems for the school or the community, but problems for both. The community school co-ordinator has the mandate to explore the perspectives of the various components of the community (including the school), identifies areas where co-operative action may occur, and relays to each constituency the basic elements of issues and needs as they arise. Through co-ordination and promotion of communication among these groups and individuals, the needed decision-making powers and leadership patterns of the community and the school will eventually emerge. Meanwhile, the school administrators and community leaders are working co-operatively in order to meet the mutual and respective needs and objectives of the community. The school and the community will benefit from each other where the community school concept is fully

implemented.

Generally, the community school concept is now becoming a viable process which every society should seriously think through and adopt for the improvement of all. Some people may think that the community school is designed to meet up with Third World backwardness, but such an assumption illustrates narrow-mindedness. The community school should therefore exist in both industrialized and rural societies because in both societies, discontented people exist who may be reached through the process and programs of community schools.

> The community school is that bridge. It represents a process by which members of a community, including the school system, learn to act together in order to identify specific community needs and to work out joint ways of responding to those needs. The community school bridge opens up viable channels of communication. When the people in the school and the people in the community become involved with each other, they usually discover a stimulating pool of resources, ideas and opportunities for improving the life of the school and the community (Gayfer, 1976:6).

It can be said that for a school to detach its content and functions from community needs is to resort to social sacrilege. In fact, the community school serves as a practical community place as it emphasizes continuous learning processes for all people within its geographic zone.

CHAPTER V

CASE STUDY

The purpose of this case study is to evaluate the extent to which the Thorncliffe school in Edmonton, Alberta, has implemented the model of a community school as established by the Edmonton School Board, in terms of its overall structure and its program and process. In this chapter,I will provide a descriptive/background of the school and neighborhood, data for evaluation purposes (survey data and observation data), data interpretation and a summary.

Description/Background of the School and Neighborhood

Thorncliffe elementary school was built in 1971 to function as a community school, but this function was not met until seven years later when a new principal assumed office. It is located at 87 Avenue north to 79 Avenue south, and 170 Street east to 178 Street west in Edmonton. According to a recent survey conducted by the Edmonton Telephone Service, the number of homes in the Thorncliffe community is 831, although there is no data available which provides the number of people who reside in Thorncliffe. In 1978, prior to the formal designation of the Thorncliffe school as a community school, the only organization which channeled local needs to City Hall was the Community League. Since 1978, the school has been trying to establish the concept of a community school that reaches the grassroots (involving the people in the policies which affect their lives). Survey and obser-

vation data which will be presented and discussed below, will highlight areas of effectiveness and/or ineffectiveness of the school in the implementation process of the community school concept. As White (Thorncliffe community school Co-ordinator) states:

> The priority of Thorncliffe and other community schools is always the education of the school aged child. However, we feel that because a child does not grow up in a vacuum, the school must orientate itself to the community it serves...(White, 1981:1).

Research Procedures

The methods used in this study are survey and observation, based on random samplings of four groups of people who constitute the community of Thorncliffe. These groups are (1) the students (grades 4, 5, 6); (2) the teaching staff; (3) parents and interested citizens; and (4) the steering committee. The respondents were randomly selected from the School Record List, provided by the principal. One person out of ten was designated as a respondent to the questionnaire. Ninety-nine point five percent of the selected students and the teaching staff completed and returned the questionnaire. The percentage of parents/interested citizens and the steering committee members, who returned the completed questionnaires, were 85 percent and 56.5 percent respectively.

The students and staff questionnaires were administered in the school. The students delivered and picked up the parents' questionnaires, while the questionnaires for the steering committee members were mailed out and returned by the members during a meeting held at the school. It must be noted that the initial open-ended question-

naire (see Appendix 1) for the students, citizens and steering committee members, was modified after a pilot survey. Early in the research, the questionnaire was designed to include grades one to six, but after the pilot survey, it was decided that grades one, two and three should be excluded as they may have problems responding to the questions. Similarly, the questionnaire was redesigned so as to be easily understood by the students by using a "yes", "no", and "I am not sure" response format (see Appendix 2). The adult questionnaire (staff, citizens and steering committee) was also modified after a pilot survey in order to facilitate the responses (see Appendices 3 and 4). Initially, the Advisory Committee was intended to be one of the groups surveyed but the principal advised that the Steering Committee would be a better substitute since the latter is more community oriented while the former is academically oriented. Thus, teachers, citizens, and the steering committee members were required to complete the standardized questionnaire (see Appendix 4). Here, the last two groups were requested to respond to questions one to five inclusive, while teachers answered all the questions.

Student Questionnaire. The student questionnaire was developed, as indicated in Appendix 2, in order to test the degree of understanding of the Thorncliffe community school operation. The framework of the questionnaire was taken from the Government of Alberta literature (Document No. 35), which determined nine characteristics of a typical community school. Here, the questions asked were de-

signed to measure six of such characteristics: social atmosphere; student/teacher relations; educational performance; parent/citizen involvement in the classrooms; community oriented projects; and participation. Six out of nine characteristics were chosen in order to gain a meaningful insight into the school's function in the neighborhood. A total of twenty-two questions were asked of the school group, out of which twenty questions specifically explored the six characteristics of a community school. The responses by the students to "yes", "I am not sure", and "no" were coded as "high", "medium", and "low" scores.

Of the student population of the school (from kindergarten to grade six) 640 and 149 students in grades four, five and six, were randomly selected to complete the questionnaire. Forty-seven, 58, and 44 students in grades four, five and six respectively, completed and returned the questionnaires. The number of students in each grade varied as some grades had more students than others.

Adult Questionnaire. General questions were asked of the adult component of the Thorncliffe community school (teachers, citizens and the steering committee) in order to measure the same six characteristics outlined in the student questionnaire. The adult groups who were randomly selected to respond to the questionnaire (see Appendix 4) were the teaching staff, parents/interested citizens, and the steering committee. The teaching staff was requested to answer all the questions, while the last two groups answered questions one to five inclusive. The expected responses for these groups were "yes" for "high", "I am not sure" for "medium", and "no" for "low" scores.

The response distributions are calculated in percentages based on the number of returned questionnaires from each group. It should be noted that out of twelve teachers designated as respondents, nine returned their questionnaires; out of 89 percent parents/citizen group, 28 returned their questionnaires, and out of the ten members of the steering committee, nine returned their questionnaires.

1. Survey Data.

Data Analysis: Six different tables will be presented here in order to illustrate the responses for friendly atmosphere; student/teacher relations; educational performance; parents/citizen involvement in classrooms; community projects and participation. The coded responses are "high", "medium" and "low" for the groups surveyed (student, teaching staff, parents/citizens, and the steering committee). These tables indicate areas of agreement or disagreement among the groups on specific characteristics.

Tables I to VI are determined from the four groups of the school who answered the designated questions. A careful examination of Table I reveals that the Thorncliffe school has a friendly atmosphere with its client system. Seventy-two point five percent of 149 students indicates that the school has a high friendly atmosphere, 25.5 percent rate it medium and two percent rate it low. Similarly, 88.8 percent out of nine teachers reported the school as high in friendly atmosphere, zero percent medium, and 11.2 percent low. Also, 71.4 percent of the 28 parents/citizens who returned the questionnaires, rated the school as high in friendly atmosphere, 28.6 rated it medium,

and zero percent low. Six, or 66.6 percent of the nine members of the steering committee rated the atmosphere as high, 22.2 percent rated it medium, and 0.1 percent said it was low. On the average, Thorncliffe school is remarkably high in friendly atmosphere to the users of the school's facilities since the four component parts have confirmed this fact.

TABLE I

PERCENTAGE RESPONSE TO FRIENDLY ATMOSPHERE

Components of Thorncliffe Community School	Characteristics: Friendly Atmosphere High	Medium	Low	N Sample
Student	72.5	25.5	2.0	149
Teaching Staff	88.8	0.0	11.2	9
Parents/Citizens	71.4	28.6	0.0	28
Steering Committee	66.6	22.2	0.0	9

*Parents/citizen involvement means using parents and citizens as teacher's aides in school programs and process

**Participation means meaningful involvement of all community groups in school activities

Table II suggests that the Thorncliffe school is high in student/teacher relations in the classroom. For instance, among 149 students who returned their questionnaires, 75.8 percent rated it high, 22.8 percent rated it medium, and 1.4 percent indicated it as low. The rating of student/teacher relations from the teaching staff ranged from 88.8 percent high, zero percent medium, and 11.2 percent low. Twenty-eight parents and citizens showed student/teacher relations at a high

of 67.8 percent, a medium of 30.0 percent, and a low of 2.2 percent. Equally significant on student/teacher relations from the steering committee is a high of 66.6 percent, a medium of 22.2 percent, and a low of 0.1 percent. Generally speaking, Thorncliffe is performing well on student/teacher relations according to the four groups surveyed.

TABLE II

PERCENTAGE RESPONSE TO STUDENT/TEACHER RELATIONS

Components of Thorncliffe Community School	Characteristics: Student/Teacher Relations			N Sample
	High	Medium	Low	
Student	75.8	22.8	1.4	149
Teaching Staff	88.8	0.0	11.4	9
Parents/Citizens	67.8	30.0	2.2	28
Steering Committee	66.6	22.2	0.1	9

Table III illustrates the level of ratings on educational performance of the Thorncliffe school by the four component parts. The student rating of educational performance ranged from a high of 56.4 percent, 40.9 percent medium, to a low of 2.7 percent. The teaching staff responded a high of 88.8 percent, zero percent medium, and a low of 11.2 percent. Parents/citizens reported educational performance as 71.4 percent high, 28.6 percent medium, and zero percent low. The steering committee similarly rated the school's educational performance a high of 77.7 percent, 22.3 percent medium, and zero percent of the population had it low. As indicated in the pre-

vious two tables, Thorncliffe school is successful in maintaining good educational goals, as all the participating groups have shown above.

TABLE III

PERCENTAGE RESPONSE TO EDUCATIONAL PERFORMANCE

Components of Thorncliffe Community School	Characteristics: Educational Performance High	Medium	Low	N Sample
Student	56.4	40.9	2.7	149
Teaching Staff	88.8	0.0	11.2	9
Parent/Citizens	71.4	28.6	0.0	28
Steering Committee	77.7	22.3	0.0	9

Table IV illustrates each group's opinion regarding parents/citizen involvement at the Thorncliffe school. It should be noted that involvement here means parents/citizen involvement in formal and non-formal school activities. Out of the 149 students interviewed, 43 percent said the parents/citizen involvement was high, 41.6 percent rated it medium, and 15.4 percent rated it low. None of the nine teachers surveyed considered parents/citizen involvement as being high; however 33.4 percent of them rated it medium, while 66.6 percent rated it low. Interestingly, 25 percent of 28 parents/citizens surveyed felt involvement was high, 50 percent said it was medium and 25 percent felt it to be low. Response from the steering committee showed 0.1 percent indicating involvement as high, 22.2 percent rated it medium, and 66.6 percent showed involvement as low. These responses indicate that par-

ents/citizen involvement at Thorncliffe is relatively below community school standards.

TABLE IV

PERCENTAGE RESPONSE TO PARENTS/CITIZEN INVOLVEMENT

Components of Thorncliffe Community School	Characteristics: Parents/Citizen Involvement			N Sample
	High	Medium	Low	
Students	43.0	41.6	15.4	149
Teaching Staff	0.0	33.4	66.6	9
Parents/Citizen	25.0	50.0	25.0	28
Steering Committee	0.1	22.2	66.6	9

Table V helps us understand how the four different groups at the Thorncliffe school judged the extent to which the school engaged in community oriented projects. Among 149 students studied, 59.7 percent of them rated the school as high on community projects, 26.2 percent rated it medium, and 14.1 percent rated it low. In the same manner, 88.8 percent of nine members of the teaching staff said the school was high on community projects, zero percent on the population rated it medium, and 11.2 percent showed the school as low. Sixty point seven percent of the 28 parents/citizens reported community projects at the Thorncliffe school as high, 30.3 percent said it was medium, and nine percent said it was low. Fifty-five point five percent of the nine members of the steering committee indicated that the school is high on community projects, 40 percent said medium,

and 4.5 percent said the school was low. In general, the school was performing well in instituting community oriented projects.

TABLE V

PERCENTAGE RESPONSE TO COMMUNITY PROJECTS

Components of Thorncliffe Community School	Characteristics: Community Projects High	Medium	Low	N Sample
Student	59.7	26.2	14.1	149
Teaching Staff	88.8	0.0	11.2	9
Parents/Citizens	60.7	30.3	9.0	28
Steering Committee	55.5	40.0	4.5	9

Table VI demonstrates the most interesting characteristic of a community school, namely participation. Here participation denotes involvement of all groups of the community in the school's activities. Judging from the previous responses, one may infer that participation was high at the Thorncliffe school, but inconsistent with the data from parents/citizens involvement (see Table IV) where the rating indicated negative participation. For example, 70.5 and 50.6 percent of the students and the steering committee respectively rated the school's participation aspect as low; while 55.5 and 50.0 percent of the teaching staff and parents/citizens respectively, rated it medium. The school then may not be performing well on the participation component in reference to the process aspect of the community school. However, one should not necessarily jump to the

conclusion that the school is performing poorly on participation since the sample size of parents/citizens is not sufficiently large enough to make generalizations.

TABLE VI

PERCENTAGE RESPONSE TO PARTICIPATION

Components of Thorncliffe Community School	Characteristics: Participation High	Medium	Low	N Sample
Student	9.5	20.1	70.5	149
Teaching Staff	40.0	55.5	4.5	9
Parents/Citizens	25.0	50.0	25.0	28
Steering Committee	5.0	44.0	50.6	9

Table VII provides a summary of the survey data. One can only base interpretations on available data which indicate that the Thorncliffe school may have some problems in achieving the required citizen participation (one of the process aspects of a community school that strongly distinguishes a community school from a public school).

Two observations are significant in the study of the Thorncliffe community school. Tables I, II, III and V demonstrate the consistency with what the clients of the school disclosed in the research, namely, that the school is operationally performing well in the social atmosphere; student/teacher relations; educational goals; and community projects. In a similar manner, the survey data (Tables IV and VI) is consistent with observation data which indicated that the school is poorly rated on parents/citizens involvement in the classrooms and

TABLE VII. SUMMARY OF DATA ANALYSIS - PERCENTAGE RATINGS

THORNCLIFFE COMMUNITY SCHOOL GROUP	FRIENDLY ATMOSPHERE			STUDENT/ TEACHER RELATIONS			EDUCATIONAL PERFORMANCE			PARENT/ CITIZEN INVOLVE-MENT			COMMUNITY PROJECTS			PARTICIPATION			TOTAL POPULATION
	H	M	L	H	M	L	H	M	L	H	M	L	H	M	L	H	M	L	
Student	72.5	25.5	2.0	75.8	22.8	1.4	56.4	40.9	2.7	43.0	41.6	15.4	59.7	26.2	14.1	9.5	20.0	70.5	149
Teaching Staff	88.8	0	11.2	88.8	0	11.2	88.8	0	11.2	0	33.4	66.6	88.8	0	11.2	40.0	55.5	4.5	9
Parent/ Citizens	71.4	28.6	0	67.8	30.0	2.2	71.4	28.6	0	25.0	50.0	25.0	60.7	30.3	9.0	25.0	50.0	25.0	28
Steering Committee	66.6	22.2	0.1	66.6	22.2	0.1	77.7	22.3	0	0.1	22.2	66.6	55.5	40.0	4.5	5.0	44.4	50.6	9
TOTAL	72.8	22.5	4.7	74.8	22.0	3.2	61.0	36.4	2.6	40.5	39.9	19.6	61.0	25.6	13.4	13.3	26.1	60.6	195

NOTE: H = High M = Medium L = Low

participation. What this means to the researcher is that the program components of the school are operating effectively while the process aspect has not been fully achieved or is lagging behind. As the above survey and observation data indicate, Thorncliffe has problems in implementing a meaningful participation component of a community school which may be due to many variables. Since the questionnaire is not open-ended enough to seek such variables, and since the observation data did not present a comprehensive picture of the subjects under study, one may infer some probable reasons which reduced classroom involvement and general participation at the Thorncliffe school.

First, there may be communication problems as the school has not fully achieved effective communication channels that reach all the groups within the Thorncliffe community. For example, the local business sector and the ordinary citizen have no representatives at the advisory or steering committee levels. Effective communication between the school and the neighborhood appears important in the achievement of the community school concept so that the grassroots will become properly informed and therefore participate in decisions that concern their lives. However, one may appreciate that the Thorncliffe school is relatively new (two years old as a designated community school), and it takes time to make people sufficiently aware of the benefits associated with the community school concept.

Secondly, one may argue that tokenism, if employed by the school authorities, will definitely limit neighborhood participation. In

other words, if the school authorities pre-determine community school policies and involve the citizens for involvement sake, they will interpret their participation as a waste of time and energy, which reduces meaningful involvement. Since many people suggested that the problem of involvement lies in too much emphasis on the program components of the school (which the co-ordinator stresses), the researcher thinks that the process components should be re-examined, with specific reference to the needs of the neighborhood, and involve people early enough in the formulation and implementation of such policies. In this way, the school may reach the grassroots.

2. Observation Data.

Based on the researcher's informal discussions with some of the residents of Thorncliffe, the concept of community has not yet reached the grassroots. Some of the problems hindering participation, as the citizens disclosed to the researcher, include community involvement; resistence by the teaching staff; shortage of facilities; and administrative problems. Subjects who were interviewed and expressed similar reasons for poor participation in the school include the authorities (principal, co-ordinator, teaching staff), the students, parents and some citizens.

Community Involvement: The Thorncliffe community school, like other community schools in Canada, had problems during the introduction of the concept. For example, some groups and organizations within the community had problems gaining support and community involvement for their programs. As the school co-ordinator indicated,

there were problems in finding members to sit on executive committees, obtaining volunteer group leaders and individuals for committee work, and poor attendance at meetings. This lack of community involvement generated the existence of a network of committed individuals to play several roles. The ultimate result was the cancellation of various activities for the community, and possibly, limiting the introduction of additional community programs. The principal, in co-operation with the school co-ordinator, is dealing with this problem of community participation. The co-ordinator conducts home visits in order to inform the residents about the volunteer structure of organizations within the community. Co-operation among the community organizations has been encouraged in order to ensure that potential volunteers are referred to the appropriate agency or group. The school approached the Volunteer Action Centre (in Edmonton) to help with volunteer management, co-ordination, and recruitment skills. Although some of these techniques have been implemented, the school has not yet obtained a sufficient number of community volunteers. However, the school is not relenting its efforts in securing community support and participation. For instance, the school is planning a social gathering in the 1981 school year in order to provide opportunities for the people to interact and share common concerns. This activity is being conducted in order to foster a sense of community awareness and to serve as a spring-board for participation. It is expected that this event will be kept small in order to alleviate the need for groups to sponsor large-scale labor intensive events there-

after.

According to the school authorities, community participation, as proposed by Minzey and LeTarte, is enhanced through the following committees. First, parents/teacher interaction is encouraged at Thorncliffe. It involves phone calls, notes and letters to parents, and meetings involving both parties. In this parents/teacher involvement, they claim an effort is made to inform parents about teachers and teaching on the one hand, and to make teachers more informed about their students' parents on the other. The second aspect of community involvement is the Parent's Advisory Committee which consists of sixteen community members, and functions in an advisory capacity to the principal. Basically, it is concerned with curriculum development and the review of the recreational programs of the school.

The third vehicle for community participation is the Steering Committee. This Committee was established in October, 1980 and is currently made up of representatives of the major user groups of the school. They include St. Justin school, Tlay school, Parks and Recreation, Mother's Morning Out, After-School Care Program, Our Saviour Lutheran Church, the Community League, Girl Guides, and the Thorncliffe community school. Basically, the committee works with the school co-ordinator in promoting the "open door" concept of the Thorncliffe community school. The members discuss and analyze alternative ways in which the community can utilize more effectively the facilities of the school. There is an effective communication net-

work between members of the Committee as each of them report back to the Committee on the progress of their assigned tasks. Each task is undertaken in order to meet increased community needs and involvement. However, the committee has experienced some difficulty in finding projects which the members can easily handle on a voluntary basis. This is so because all the members have regular full-time jobs and work part-time on their assigned tasks. In view of this fact, the Committee is making some progress in two specific areas, (a) a comprehensive directory of the Thorncliffe community, and (b) a plan for "New Neighborhood Night". The ultimate function of the Steering Committee is to act as an arbitrator on "open door" policy problems. For example, when damage occurs due to community use of school facilities, the committee conducts a public hearing in order to determine who did what and when. However, the Steering Committee has not yet performed this function because there has not been any damage to the school.

The fourth way in which the community is involved in the school is by means of the volunteer program. This program involves volunteer tutors and parents in the classroom. The kindergarten program, for example, was designed to bring parents and interested citizens into the classroom so that if it proved successful, such involvement may be extended to all the grades. However, this volunteer program is a continuous process and it is left to the individual teachers and administrators to explore and utilize its potential. This program has recently been introduced at the Thorncliffe school and there is no information available to judge its effectiveness. Thorncliffe

school also has a volunteer co-ordinator who works co-operatively with the school co-ordinator. The activities of the volunteer staff include tutoring programs and office work. They basically do what they like to do for the school. Some of them are involved in library work, such as typing out the cards, working with the children in the library, filing, and the like. Some of them are involved in planning and organization of field trips for students. Others speak to classes on various topics of interest.

Finally, the Executive Committee is another body which allows for community involvement in the school. This committee was formed in October, 1980 and is composed of the Community League President, the District Recreation Co-ordinator, the Principal and the School Co-ordinator. It established the "open door" policy and set up rules and regulations that help other committees. This committee meets as the need arises. This is often determined by the principal, in co-operation with the Community League president.

Resistance by Teaching Staff: According to the principal and the school co-ordinator, the teachers at Thorncliffe were initially worried that its designation as a community school would mean additional evening work loads, use of their classrooms by community groups; and an intrusion into their professional areas of responsibility. The fact that the teaching staff tended to question the role of the community school co-ordinator, as well as the school's designation, created some problems. To this effect, the school administration undertook great effort to demonstrate to the teachers that they would not be negatively affected. This resulted in gaining the teachers' support. Gaining

staff support enhanced the designing and programming of community oriented curricula. Special care was also taken to ensure that the classrooms would not be disrupted (a problem easily met because of the availability of the community wing). Teachers are still consulted before and after their areas are used (daytime gym use, library, audio-visual equipment, to cite a few), to assure them that their concerns and opinions are considered. Equally important, the teachers feared that they would be asked to work evenings (teaching courses and supervising extra-curricular activities), as they had learned from other community schools. However, there have not been any extra requirements on the part of the teaching staff, though their attendance at meetings and events is optional. Meeting the felt needs of the staff has developed positive, as well as co-operative, attitudes by the staff toward the school's administration. It should be noted that there has not been any general disapproval of community groups or their right to use the school, rather, there was a reluctance to adjust to the changes and their effects.

Shortage of Facilities: At Thorncliffe, shortage of facilities occurred due to the heavy use of the Thorncliffe community hall for day-time pre-school and child care programs. That facility is usually booked from 7.30 a.m. to 6.00 p.m., which calls for the development of additional child oriented day-time programs and the provision of co-ordinated parent/child programming. The need for these programs, as well as more child care, have been expressed as community concerns which will be given priority in the 1980/81 school year. Currently,

the Parents' Advisory Group at Thorncliffe has developed a resource list which provides emergency sitters to mothers who need short time lunch and after school care. Usually residents are referred to the Small World Babysitting Co-op (a recently established resident co-operative) and to the babysitting registry at the West Jasper Place Neighborhood Association for other child care resources.

The groups using the community hall during the after-school hours are at times asked to share in the clean-up and preparation time. A great deal of planning, communication and co-ordination among the groups is encouraged so that each group has access to the existing facility. With good management at Thorncliffe, the available facilities, such as After School Care and play-school, have improved tremendously.

Some Administrative Problems: The chief administrator (the school principal) at the Thorncliffe school has established good human relations between the school and its community. His immediate problem is a lack of time. For example, he teachers 70 percent of the school day and spends only 30 percent on administrative tasks. The percentage of his time allocated to administration is not sufficient for him to be able to meet other community school management duties. One thinks that 30 percent of his time should be spent on teaching while 70 percent should be assigned for administrative activities. In this way, he will have sufficient time to feel the pulse of the entire community. Although the principal has already established effective two-way communication on a community-wide basis (which helps in the interchange of thoughts, ideas and feelings about the school), he still needs more

time to implement the concept. The provincial three-year community school trial period is not adequate for the concept to get to the grassroots. We must appreciate that effecting a community school concept in any neighborhood is a major social change. Such a change cannot be expected to be spasmodic, rather it involves a gradual process in changing ideas, concepts, beliefs and reducing tension. To this end, the three-year community school period should be extended to allow for human adjustment to social change. However, it would be helpful if, after three years of operation, that the school be evaluated and the findings used to execute future plans during an extended period of operation. One may argue that the joint use of school/community facilities is an excellent policy, but there is a need to allow for more time to plan programs and activities that will benefit the people. It should be noted that the community is made up of people, and people have the right to participate in decisions which affect their lives. At Thorncliffe (middle-lower class values), it may be time consuming to get community involvement since most residents may not be well informed as to the benefits of a community school. Placing a three-year deadline hinders the chances for such a concept to filter down to all the citizens of the community.

Another area of concern, according to the principal, is the need to train the people of the community. Such training would prepare them in leadership skills and group behavior. In other words, there is a need to teach the community the skills of group dynamics. For instance, the chairperson should know how to organize meetings, how to

motivate individuals, groups, and organizations during a meeting. He should let people in the meetings realize that their contributions are valuable in order to enhance effective community development. With time, the entire community will accept this concept and this will provide a quality of learning experience that will benefit all Thorncliffe citizens.

From the foregoing discussion, it is important to ask two specific questions: has the community benefitted from the Thorncliffe community school, and has the school benefitted from its community?

Community Benefit from the Thorncliffe School

Based on discussions between the client system of the school (students, teachers, parents and interested citizens) and the researcher, the following achievements were observed. Structures that have been developed for mutual need assessment and resource-sharing, are helping groups and organizations within the Thorncliffe area to meet the felt needs of the neighborhood. Communication and problem-solving processes have been developed, although some effort is needed to ensure their continuation. Community involvement in decision-making and policy development have occured to ensure that these decisions reflect the views of all involved. However, since the school is in its first year of functioning as a community school, effort should be made to involve more citizens in areas relevant to them. The volunteer program of the school has provided the needed manpower for community-oriented activities. Equally important is that the school has developed a means of providing the residents of Thorncliffe

with information about the role, structure, objectives, and services of various groups, organizations and agencies that are available to them. This has proved successful in that groups and individuals have come to utilize the school and community facilities accessible to them. In addition, a sense of community identity is currently being fostered as priority has been placed on the development of a broader base for community involvement. This indicates clearly that the Thorncliffe community school is facilitating community development.

How Thorncliffe School Benefits from its Community

The school co-ordinator helps teachers in designing and programming community-oriented curriculum and experiential learning opportunities for the students. At Thorncliffe, a volunteer recruitment officer has been appointed. What this means is that the teaching staff have volunteers to help them in the classroom, in outdoor activities, and in the library. The co-ordinator also books and co-ordinates community use of the school building and facilities, which in turn releases the office staff from these tasks. Similarly, the Thorncliffe school is perceived as a member of the broader community as opposed to a separate institution. The interaction that has developed has resulted in the solution of many problems shared by the school and the community. The continuation of school/community projects will eventaully provide a means for joint school/community action on other felt needs and concerns. The school has also gained insight into community problems by maintaining effective communication networks with individuals, groups and community organizations.

Finally, the school children have gained a greater awareness and appreciation of their community, its organizations and opportunities. The students have thus come to realize the value of community identity.

Summary

Thorncliffe school, which was formally designated as a community school in 1978, has been attempting to implement the program and process components of community education. As the above data suggest, the implementation strategies have been successful on the program components but have not yet succeeded in implementing the process aspects. The probable explanations for the delay in making progress on the process components of the school have been cited in the data interpretation. However, it is important that the authorities of the school recognize that the program and process components of community education should be implemented simultaneously if the school is to serve as a community school. Thus, effective implementation of the community school concept requires citizen participation if the desired goals are to reach the grassroots of the Thorncliffe community. To build citizen participation within the Thorncliffe community school framework, it becomes necessary that communication between the school and the community must be open in order to provide the needed feedback for the formulation and implementation of policies which affect the lives of the people.

CHAPTER VI

CONCLUSIONS AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Based on the literature reviewed and the case study, it is evident that a community school is an agent for the implementation of community education philosophy (programs and process). As Dewey, Reiss, Minzey and LeTarte have emphasized, educational goals will thrive best when the people are actively involved in making decisions which concern their lives. Such emphasis on community participation in the neighborhood school for the solution of needs and achievement of self-actualization is a primary principle in community development.

In conclusion, the author is proposing a participation model of a community school based on the findings of this study.

Participation Model of a Community School: To enhance effective citizen involvement in the decision-making process, the schoool must establish a participation model network with its people (community). As Saxe writes:

> School public relations is a process of communication between the school and community for the purpose of increasing citizen understanding of educational needs and practices and encouraging intelligent citizen interest and co-operation in the work of improving the school (Saxe, 1975:6).

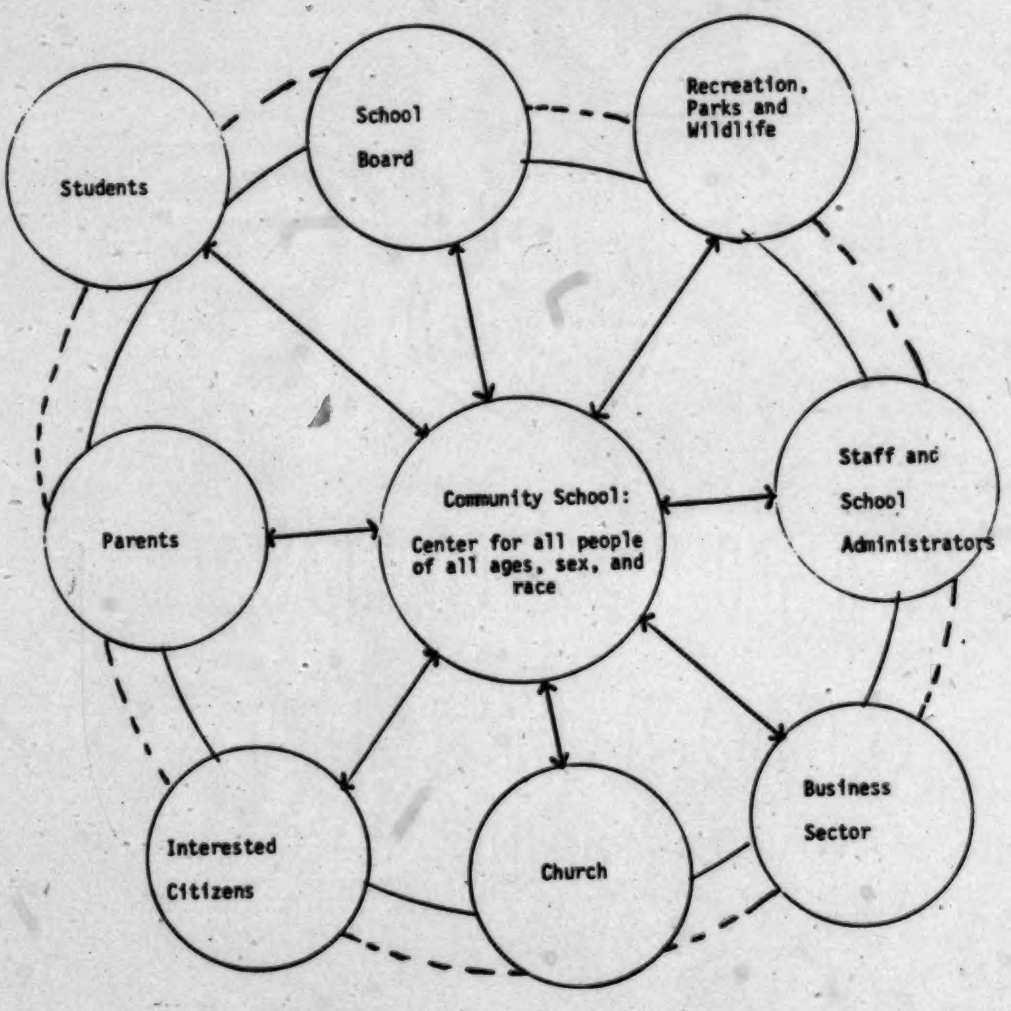
The public relation model assumes here that a favorable atmosphere must be created in which the school and the community interact in order to make them aware of how they can benefit from their school. This model also provides some feedback to the school so it can plan programs and

activities which meet the needs of the community. It is believed that through community relations the school can deal with what the citizens identify as problematic areas. Similarly, the establishment of public relations between the school and the community will enrich educational patterns and provide the incentive to establish trust and community involvement in agreed upon activities, programs and policies. This calls for a model of the decision-making process that involves the school components in a dialogue as illustrated in Figure III.

In this model, a community school becomes an umbrella centre through which its participating components interact for the maintenance of community spirit. For each interaction to be meaningful, effective communication between the school and the component parts should be encouraged. The model illustrates how all the various components of the school interact directly in the school on an equal basis for the solution of community felt needs. In other words, the participation signifies civic unity, and above all, a co-operative endeavour for all the people involved.

Figure III illustrates the participation format of a typical community school. The school therefore becomes a community center where the School Board, Recreation, Parks and Wildlife, the staff, the business sector, the church, citizens, parents, and students come together to share concerns and contribute to decisions that affect them. Involvement can operate within two levels at the community school. As an educational institution, the school's goal will center on identification of areas of possible action. As an agent of the community, it can promote and facilitate the means by which action can be taken. For example,

FIGURE III: PARTICIPATION MODEL



NOTE: Solid Line _____ means direct interaction
Dotted Line _ _ _ _ _ means indirect interaction

feedback received from participating components may necessitate that the school conduct a social survey on the need for a pre-school playground in one part of the community. Input from various community components will assist school authorities in designing and directing its reseach towards such community felt needs.

The committee or the board that runs the school should be comprised of members from the School Board, Social Services Department, school staff, business/industrial sector, the church, citizens, parents and students. Each member of the committee should be allowed to provide input when relevant decisions or policies are being proposed. Such democratic philosophy, when adopted and maintained, will be easy to monitor to ensure that every segment of the community is well represented in working for the solution of social betterment. Richard Saxe presents modified techniques through which the relationship between the school and the community can be beneficial to both (See Table VIII).

From this chart, one may deduce related techniques which affect an "open door" community school (close social distance) and a "close door" school (create or maintain social distance). In an open door school, the relationship between the school and the community is on the increase; opinion leader is high, voluntary association is high, settlement house is high when the people are friendly because there is a sense of intimate relationships established between the school and the community which reinforces social solidarity. Common messenger, mass media and formal authority are low. By the same reasoning, a close-door school has the opposite characteristics to an open-door community school. This is to say that public perception of the school is

TABLE VIII COMPARATIVE USEFULNESS OF LINKING MECHANISMS USED BY SCHOOLS

Source: (Saxe 1975:244)

	Estimated Usefulness to:	
Linking Mechanism	Close Social Distance	Create or Maintain Social Distance
Detached Worker	Very High	Very Low
Opinion Leader	Potentially Moderate	Moderate
Settlement House	High, Potentially very high, when community is friendly	Moderate
Voluntary Association	Moderate, Potentially high, when community is friendly	Very Low
Common Messenger	Low	High
Mass Media	Low	High
Formal Authority	Very Low	Very High

low, opinion leader is low, settlement house is low, and the like. It is obvious that adopting open-door policies in a community school which stresses public involvement in relevant areas does make the community school an agent for community development.

It is important to remember that for a school to carry the name "community school" it must be based on a model which gets the people involved in curriculum, program and process planning. In doing so, the felt needs may be identified through the community school process or through a social survey and/or by staff members approaching the citizens at home or in places where they feel at home (restaurants, clubs, and even in church houses). It should be noted that introducing and implementing citizen involvement in a community school is not an easy task in that one may experience economic, political, social, ethical or professional constraints in the process. Nevertheless, the encourager must be willing to exercise added patience in order to deliver and implement participatory democracy. Alinsky has noted that:

> The issue that is not clear to organizers, missionaries, educators, or any outsider, is simply that if people feel they don't have the power to change a bad situation, then they do not think about it...Once people are organized so that they have the power to make changes, then, when confronted with questions of change, they begin to think and to ask questions about how to make the changes. (Alinsky, 1971:105).

In other words, making people responsible for the solution of the felt needs is rewarding in that they do not only become skilled in problem-solving, but they become aware of the available resources which stimulate the learning process. The model of citizen involvement here

calls for the implementation of McGregor's theory. This theory emphasizes a "humanistic" community school model in that channels of communication are maintained, people become involved in setting goals, assigning priority, and participating in planning and in making decision at all levels of the school that appear relevant to them. The basic assumptiom of this theory is that human beings are capable of improving their own situations given the available resources, expertise, and information.

One may ask, under what circumstance should the citizen be involved in the decision-making of a community school? The obvious answer is that the said decision must be relevant to the citizens, and that they should have adequate expertise needed for such a decision. By the former the issue must be directly related to the citizens and the latter portrays that the decision must be in the specific area where the citizens are knowledgeable. For example:

> ...If subordinates have a personal stake (high relevance) in decision and have the knowledge to make a useful contribution (high expertise), then the decision clearly falls outside the zone of acceptance, and subordinates should be involved in the decision-making process. If the issue is not relevant and it falls outside their sphere of competence, however, then the decision clearly falls within the zone of acceptance and involvement should be avoided. Indeed, involvement in this latter case is likely to produce resentment because subordinator typically will not want to be involved (Hoy and Miskel, 1978:229).

Precisely what this model proposes is the notion that the citizens, as one of the community school components, should be allowed to particpate in the decisions which affect their lives. However, there seems to be no clear cut model for citizen involvement in a community school since areas of expertise and relevance may vary among communities. This is

so because there has not yet been a workable definition of areas of community relevance and expertise. Nevertheless a community school will perform well when all its component parts are involved in the determination of curriculum, programs, projects and activities. The model of participation here assumes that the area in which the people participate is related to their skills and expertise. The problem of a community school can be resolved if all the constituencies perceive themselves as working as a team for the improvement of the school and the community. As Griffiths illustrates:

> If the administrator confines his behavior to making decisions on the decision-making process rather than making terminal decisions for the organization, his behavior will be more acceptable to his subordinates. If the administrator perceives himself as the controller of the decision-making process, rather than the maker of the organizations' decision, the decision will be more effective (Griffiths, 1959:74,75).

Thus, decision-making in the community school should involve a team of experts (school board, staff, administrators and the clients). The team composed of individual specialists will design community school curriculums and activities which hopefully will reflect the educational, as well as the social needs of the school and its neighborhood. In Canada, greater community involvement in schools has already been fostered as the authorities encourage citizen involvement in the areas of relevance.

> ...The encouragement of public involvement in education decision-making has been manifested by the greater representation of the public on committees, task forces, and councils. In this way, schools, school boards, and provincial administrative decision-making have been more open and participatory. Greater community education, more community school programs and the extended use of the school facilties have also been emphasized (Gayfer, 1978:22).

The Role of Community School Principal

The participation model of a community school proposed in this conclusion can only be applied in reality if special consideration is given to the roles of the principal and that of the co-ordinator. It is important then to clearly understand what the roles of these two significant elements of a community school concept are.

The community school principal is a leader, as well as a manager, of a school designed to meet the felt needs of the neighborhood. According to Burden, et. al.

> In defining leadership as it relates to principal, there is always the spectre of management rearing its ugly head, although in reality this need not develop into irreconcilable conflict. A principal is both a leader and a manager, and no matter how hard an individual tries to be only an educational leader, administrative details and management functions will by necessity be a real part of the on-going process (Burden and Whitt, 1973:3).

What distinguishes a community school principal from a traditional school principal is that the formal employs the resources of the neighborhood (human and ecological resources) in achieving a high quality of educational goals, while the latter concentrates on the implementation of policies handed down by the bureaucracy. This is to say that a community school principal involves more of the staff, students and the citizens of the neighborhood in the decision-making process of the school, as opposed to the traditional school principal, who may involve only the staff members. For instance, Ryan demonstrates that:

> Schools are more effective with their students when administrators enable faculty, staff, students and interested citizens to involve themselves in educational

> matters on behalf of their own concerns for better education. The required administrative leadership lies in enabling all those to join in identifying common objectives within the existing framework of school structure, goals and role assignments, accepting growth and change in structure and goals through developmental activity among all those concerned (Ryan, 1976:67).

Thus a community school principal is a leader and a manager of a community centre where the citizens carry out various programs and activities.

From the foregoing definition, one can identify some specific administrative tasks of the community school principal, namely: method of organization, leader of a community school and staffing of personnel.

The Community School Principal as Organizer and Leader. Traditionally, and in some non-community schools, the principal organizes the school in a bureaucratic manner, which allows little or no citizen participation in the designing, planning, and programming of school activities. This results in the neighborhood becoming alienated from its own school. Consequently, legitimate concerns of the citizens are either neglected or frustrated by the school's bureaucracy. Today, in most community schools, the principal strategically organizes the school to meet the educational goals as well as the felt needs of the community. As Burden, et. al. illustrate:

> Organizational structure does not necessarily need to be a delimiting factor. In fact a well organized, well structured school with flexible rules and regulations developed by the staff and community actually help facilitate the organization in its educational mission. A significant role that any community school principal plays is in working with all personnel to organize the school in such a way that efficiency and effectiveness of the total staff, all facilities, the entire community, and the total resources are maximized (Burden and Whitt, 1973:37).

Here the school is organized to have community representatives in the advisory committee which formulates specific decisions relevant to the school and the neighborhood. Precisely, the principal assumes a facilitator's role for the desired change by working co-operatively with a team of school and community experts (composed of the staff, students, the community, and the local organizations). The advisory committee to the principal will concern itself with the planning and execution of community oriented curriculum, programs and activities of the school. For example,

> By conceiving delinquency as a community problem, as well as an individual and family problem, it will allow the moral and material resources of a total city or school district to be organized to find the solution (Metzner, 1974:40).

As illustrated above, the principal should ensure that citizens participate in determining the nature of community oriented curriculum. It is obvious that involving the people in the planning and implementation of programs and activities relevant to them will help the school meet the educational aspirations, as well as alleviate the social problems, of the community.

> The principal in a community school also performs a different role than in the traditional school. Perhaps as much as one-half of the community school principal's time is involved in establishing and administering educational programs related to the community. This could involve developing a co-ordinated effort between the school and various community agencies; it could involve home visitations with teachers and counselors to determine what is needed to help youngsters become better learners; and it could include the establishment of educational experiences and opportunities throughout the community for citizens to be involved in ((Hiemstra, 1972:39).

The principal, in organizing the school in this manner, allows the

community to have equal input in making decisions which are relevant to them. It is hoped that such citizen involvement will benefit both the school and the community.

The benefits associated with school organization which recognizes citizen participation are three fold. In the first place, the principal and his staff become more acceptable to the community as the structural organization enables the neighborhood and the school to relate effectively to one another. By the same design, the school will ensure that the social studies curriculum emphasizes the felt needs of the people which may result in a probable job satisfaction of the principal, staff, students and citizens.

Secondly, organizing the school so that educational as well as community interests are maximized, will also benefit the students. For instance, students may learn more in social studies classes about how to cope with delinquencies; how to be resourceful to one another, or develop the feeling of belonging. Similarly, the citizens will be seen as assisting the school in performing better by providing the latter with the necessary feedback. Thus, the school becomes instrumental in the achievement of educational goals as well as the development of the community. The major drawback of this organizational set-up is that when people are extensively involved in the decision-making process, the managerial as well as the leadership skills of the organization may likely suffer. For example, not every individual can lead in every aspect of decisions. Decisions requiring technical, theoretical and immediate execution should fall into the jurisdiction

of the community school principal, while those which concern community situations should have citizen participation as prerequisites. In other words, the principal should ensure that the organization of the school is arranged in such a way that staff and citizen involvement is encouraged in areas of their relevance and competence. For example, Mang warns that involving citizens and agencies in the organizational framework of the community school may generate some opposition.

> Sometimes a service project will be undertaken as a class project. This service may involve the investigation of a social problem that affects the whole community. In some cases, no one will question the value of what is being done, in others, there may be strong opposition. Be conscious of the possibility of controversy when making your plan...Be conscious of firms who might become involved solely for advertising purposes and volunteers who expect too high a level of professional competence from students (Mang, 1978: 33-34).

It is clear, however, that the way the principal organizes his school may facilitate or retard the leadership process. Here the principal initiates effective interaction of the school with the community for the purpose of alleviating mutually felt needs of the two participating parties (school and community). For example, Hoy, et. al. indicate:

> ...perceptual evaluations of performance are important outcomes, at least to the individual leader. Subjective judgments of the leader by subordinates, peers, and superiors yield a second effectiveness type. In school organization, the opinions held by students, teachers, administrators, and school patrons are examples of perceptual appraisals. Leadership effectiveness then has an objective dimension, accomplishment or organizational goals and a subjective dimension, perceptual evaluations of significant reference groups (Hoy and Miskel, 1978:181).

Successful community school principals maintain that their abilities to lead are and must be modified by the staff, student, and community expectations. When such expectations are operationalized in the school programs and processes, the probability for the effective performance of the principal is high, as opposed to the traditional principals who fail to accept evaluations (feedback) from their subordinates.

Staffing. One of the tasks of a community school principal is to recruit staff members who would work towards achieving educational and community goals. Hiring of staff requires specific skills and expertise so as to ensure that an appropriate person with adequate qualifications enters the educational organization. In order to accomplish this role effectively, the principal needs to be aware of what is expected of the staff by the organization. As Ringers, Jr. states:

> Administrators need to be informed of the attitudes of organized labor concerning the responsibilities of their staffs and would be well advised to keep affected labor organizations informed of program changes...The staff of a jointly occupied and/or operated facility must be more versatile, more flexible, more receptive to change. Change of working conditions will be the rule rather than the exception. The staff must also be more talented to assure continuous operation of the building and the specialized equipment it may be expected to house...employee attitude and manner of performance can sustain or subvert the overall goals of the joint project. Therefore, all participating agencies should have some role in drafting job specifications and in staff selection. They should also have a meaningful role in evaluating the performance of key personnel (Ringers, Jr., 1976:157).

What is worth noting here is that the principal, when recruiting staff members whose activities concern the community, should have the repre-

sentative of the community participate in the hiring, and that the individual must be flexible to community school innovations. Ideally, not every qualified and experienced teacher can accept responsibilities associated with a community school, and such persons should be filtered out during the hiring processes. Through these processes, the well qualified, competent, and experienced teacher, will be brought into the community school to assist the principal in enforcing the philosphy of a community school (the improvement of the people). Umans argues that good teachers are those who are willing to work with people.

> Who will be the educators? The answer is that the total community will become the school; the school building of today will just be one small "station" of education; children will move from industrial plant to theater to hospital to court to museum to college laboratory to store-front city hall. The agents of education, or teachers, will comprise of the artist, the politician, the medical doctor, the researcher, the curator and the computer. The child will become truly a social being, educated by the organized use of all human resources...(Umans, 1970:27-28).

Emphasis should be placed on recruiting personnel who are not necessarily professionals but those who are dedicated and dynamic in working with the people for development of the school and the neighborhood.

Principal as the Co-ordinator of School Activities. One of the essential roles of the community school principal is to ensure that the academic and neighborhood resources and activities are integrated and co-ordinated so that both the school and the community benefit from them. In order to co-ordinate the available resources and school activities, the principal should take into account that effective com-

munication complements group participation. Gayfer demonstrates that:

> ...Co-ordination of resources and services is the core of Mr. Glendinning's job, he is quick to point out that a change of attitude is the first prerequisite for community involvement. And a big part of that is simply to put into operation the board's philosophy that the school and the community have a mutual bond of interest...The philosophy of the board is to encourage each community to evaluate its particular needs and establish the kind of programs it wants with the co-operation and assistance of such resources as the school. This commitment of decentralization and self-help mean that a much less structured community school program is allowed to develop one that has its roots in community participation (Gayfer, 1976: 35).

Some community school principals experience problems in co-ordinating school activities because of poor definition of goals, plans, and organization.

> Organization puts people and resources into meaningful relationships, but it is through co-ordination that the organization is continuously monitored to assure that the components are orchestrated to function as intergrated and harmonious wholes (Wynn, 1973:26).

One may ask, who is accountable for the maintenance of the school building? In the real sense, the community school principal is accountable, but if the school is big enough he may delegate authority to a staff member who is knowledgeable in building maintenance.

> ...operations and maintenance may be defined as keeping the school building in a continuing ready state for occupancy and optimum learning. Students, staff, and public have a moral right to this type of facility. It is difficult to do this, but again the leadership role of the principal meets this requirement (Buren and Whitt, 1973:151).

There seems to be no clear cut criteria for establishing adequate school maintenance in that the facilities used in individual schools vary considerably. However, one may suggest some common denominators which may

be useful in determining maintenance needs for a community school. These may include identifying needs as to location, developing maintenance schedules, and determining maintenance shop and equipment requirements. In some community schools there may not be a need to hire personnel for the maintenance of the school building as the community assumes responsibility for supplying the labor force when needed.

> In many school districts, school maintenance programs are not organized, staffed and administered in such a way that the needs of each school can be determined by the maintenance staff. In such districts, there may be some progressive communities where parent-teacher associations, civic club, community improvement league and other organizations become interested in and devote attention to various aspects of the school program. The improvement of school facilities is often one area in which keen interest is manifested. This interest may be promoted by special school plant improvement committees composed of representatives of the various community organizations (Finchum, 1960:46).

If the principal maintains good relations and is perceived by the staff, students and community as performing well, he may gain their support whenever maintenance problems arise in the school. For such solidarity to exist, communication must be open, and the people should be allowed to participate in the school process and programs that are relevant to them.

Community School Principal and Community Relations. Community relations means all levels of interaction between the school and the community. In other words, the interaction should be made more effective as the principal promotes a school philosophy which meets the felt needs of the neighborhood. A careful examination of Canadian demo-

cratic history illustrates that educators should affect good school-community relations. The argument here is that a more open approach to community relations is necessary in order to gain public (community) confidence.

One may ask, what role can the principal play in maintaining effective school-community relations? The answer is that the principal as a co-ordinator of school-community activities, should make the clients aware of what the school is doing by assuring good communications. For example, Saxe emphasizes:

> I believe that my responsibilities to the community are of utmost importance. For without community backing my job as a principal would be an uphill battle. The community must be kept fully informed as to the school program and the reasons for any implementation of new programs. There must be a complete type of open door communication between the community and the school. The public should feel free to come into the building at any time and observe the educational process that is taking place. I am not advocating a school run by a group of parents, but I am advocating a give and take between the parents and the school (Saxe, 1975:47).

What appears important here is that the principal should ensure that the community is well informed about what the school offers, and how they can benefit from it. Provision of such information to the citizens will probably stimulate them into providing the school administration with adequate feedback needed for planning effective curricula for the children as well as for the adults. It must be noted that if the school has to do all the communications without accepting citizen input, the process may be damaging in that the essential feedback is lacking. In other words, the principal has to have channels of com-

munication which travel from the school to the community and vice versa. In order that effective communication is established between the school and the community, an atmosphere of friendship must be created, followed by a sense of belonging which will reinforce some elements of reciprocity between the two parties. The end result for mutual solidarity between the school and community will lead to democratic philosophy in school process and programs.

> While recognizing that some situations require authoritarian and other laissez-faire leadership, human relations theorists considered that in the long run, under normal situations, groups thrived best when the leadership functions were democratically shared among members of the group (McKague, 1968:31).

What is worth emphasizing here is that the school principal has to maintain good relations with the community in the areas which are relevant to the latter. Relevancy may refer to the school content and process in either social studies or effective participation of the client system which reflects the community's felt needs. This will be of benefit to community developers as well as to educators and the neighborhood. For example, C. M. Campbell cited the following on a topic of "Community School Administration":

> I am convinced that two significant changes have to occur in the administration of public schools before real progress can be achieved: 1. We must have sophisticated persons who can relate to the common man, in key leadership positions, endowed with responsibility to move ahead with ever changing, ever better, ever more progressive educational programs; 2. Educational administration must be taken out of its monastic atmosphere of serenity into the hard and often irritating realities of communities (Hickey, (Ed.), 1969:52).

The Role of Community School Co-ordinator. The basic requirement for the establishment of community education and community school

program and process is that the school and the community must co-operate with each other. Such co-operation is met by a catalyst who gets the process aspect of the school going and whose role in community is to help people learn how to help themselves. According to Whitt, Community School Co-ordination may be defined as:

> The key to any community school program is the Community School Director (Co-ordinator). This individual is the co-ordinator and leader of all aspects of the community education program. He leads when there is a need to develop new programs and to maintain the old; he co-ordinates when it is essential that he allow others to lead and to encourage others to move forward on their own. The Community School Director is a motivator, expediter, a learning specialist, a community relations expert, a master of ceremonies, a community action agent, a VISTA volunteer, an evangelist for education, a custodian and a clerk, a vice-principal, a counselor, a boys' club leader, a girl's club sponsor, a friend in the neighborhood, and a humanitarian concerned with the welfare of our society (Whitt, 1971:41).

The activities of the co-ordinator include soliciting ideas and suggestions; giving direction to possible lines of action; attending community meetings throughout the neighborhood; helping people to identify and co-operate on community needs; and show that education is vital for the development of the community. The role of the community school co-ordinator is to liaise between the school and the community. This requires two-way interaction as a prerequisite. Gayfer has maintained that the objectives of a typical community school co-ordinator should include the following:

> ...to assess the interest and needs of the various school communities throughout the counties; to meet with various groups and agencies which show an interest or desire to further their involvement in programs and activities involving the school or facilities; to co-operate with the

> school principal and staff in promoting or developing community programs or activities related to the school; to offer, as invited, information, ideas, assistance and guidance to groups or agencies interested in developing programs or activities in community schools; to foster in co-operation with the principal, ways by which schools can extend into communities; to assist schools in using various services and resources of the communities; and to assess the development of the community-school program (Gayfer, 1976:36).

For the community to actively participate in its neighborhood school, the co-ordinator should bring the people into the school, involve them, get them interested in the school concept and provide them with adequate information on relevant issues. Another important function of the co-ordinator is to clarify the expectations of the school staff and community. For the staff, the school co-ordinator should provide information regarding the implementation of the community school concept. Similarly, the latter must be made to understand that the position of the co-ordinator is not a way to transfer the school tax burden to the citizens, rather such a position should be viewed as a means of integrating the needs of the people into school programs and process, for the improvement of the community.

Community School Co-ordinator Compared to Corporate Manager. Community schools in Canada, like some corporate sectors in the United States, are seen as social institutions whose activities and functions service human welfare. The role of such schools becomes particularly significant in that they service rural and urban communities when properly implemented. The co-ordinator of such a school attempts to actively involve the people in the formulation and implementation of school policies which are relevant to the people. Here the co-ordi-

nator's role ranges from helping people learn desired skills necessary for problem-solving to the establishment of community identity.

In the United States there are some corporate institutions already involved in projects designed to meet community problems. For example:

> In the United States, the advancement of women and non-whites has become a long overdue matter of national policy, and some companies go so far as to reward their managers financially for meeting "affirmative action" targets. At Pillsbury, a leading food company, each of its three product groups must present not only a sales plan for the following year but a plan relating to the hiring, training and promotion of women and minority group members....At Chemical Bank in New York, 10 to 15 percent of a branch manager's job performance appraisal is based on her or his social performance - sitting on community agency boards, making loans to not-for-profit organizations, hiring and upgrading minorities (Toffler, 1980:256-257).

What is worth noting here is that in the United State, the corporate sector (through its managers) has moved in to alleviate human felt needs such as helping disadvantaged blacks and other minorities. In other words, companies were engaged in similar programs which community schools offered to its neighborhoods. What this illustrates is that some corporations do not have economics as an ultimate goal but consider environmental, social, information, political and moral goals in their business plans. Thus, our multi-purpose corporations function in ways similar to the ways in which our community schools operate, particularly in meeting the needs of the neighborhood. For example, community school co-ordinators and the managers of some corporate companies are now involved in specifying multiple goals, weighing them, interrelating them and finding strategic policies that accomplish more than a single goal at one point in time for the neigh-

borhood. This, however, requires policies which optimize many variables simultaneously for the improvement of people. Helping people help themselves is becoming popular among the co-ordinators of community schools and managers of multi-purpose corporations, who see it as a means, not only of improving individuals, but also a technique for maintaining social solidarity. For instance, managers of multi-purpose corporations have realized that profit may be high when people learn how to spend their income and leisure in a more realistic manner. As Anderson puts it:

> And to the business leaders anywhere, let me suggest that if you are interested in prosperity and the growth of your business, get behind community school projects. Neither uneducated people with high purchasing power nor uneducated people on welfare or with low purchasing power are good for business. But if we can get them involved in the community school and thereby get them involved in education for themselves and their families, we can increase business volume very substantially (Anderson, 1969:6).

Development which reaches the grassroots is the basic concern of both community school co-ordinators and multi-purpose corporation managers. Here the strategy of implementation may vary but the ultimate outcome will be the same, namely to make people realize the potential they have for solving their problems. In this respect, the co-ordinator and the corporate manager are change agents who are integrating the felt needs of people into either the community school curriculum or the multi-purpose objectives of corporations.

> ...If the Community Education Co-ordinator's status-role has value in school/communities where it has appeared, and if it is to be of value on a still wider scale in Alberta, then careful attention must be given to all the ways it can be strengthened and shared in Alberta society (Card, 1975:203).

Recommendations

The technique by which the participation component at the Thorncliffe school will be improved is not clear cut. It may be misleading for the author to recommend a clear-cut solution which will immediately increase citizen participation. However, based on the interpretation of the case study and in relation to suggestions which previous researchers have cited, the author will propose some tentative recommendations for consideration.

Recommendation I: that the process components (specifically participation component) have to be implemented at the Thorncliffe school in such a way that the grassroots effectively participate on an equal basis with other groups in the community. Involvement may prove impractical where it is irrelevant to the neighborhood needs and when the people lack the necessary expertise. Relevance and expertise should be seriously considered by the school authorities when involving the people in the decision-making process. The former provides the neighborhood with problem-solving skills needed for the solution of community needs, while the latter will generate efficiency in the appropriate utilization of the available resources and manpower.

Recommendation 2: that Parents' Advisory Committees be re-organized to include representatives from the School Board, Social Service departments, staff and school authorities, the church, business/industrial sector, parents, interested citizens, social clubs, and the students. As Minzey and LeTarte recommend:

> Representative means that the membership should be made up of all of the various sub-groups of that community - ethnic,

> religious, socio-economic, sub-divisions, professional, business, industry, government, educational, etc. In addition, while representation is important, size is also a factor. Councils with less than fifteen members are often too small while having more than fifty members is too large to be effective (Minzey and LeTarte, 1979:133).

In this situation, committees or councils of the school should have the mandate to freely initiate discussions on neighborhood problems, organize them and collectively execute action for the solution of such problems. This is to say that the improvement of the neighborhood (community development) which the Thorncliffe school is attempting to enhance, may not be achieved unless individuals and groups of the community are effectively involved in the process of determining and implementing policies which affect their lives.

Recommendation 3: that two-way communication between the school and the neighborhood be maintained so that the user groups become adequately aware of the school's content and how they can participate in the solution of community needs. For example, some residents of Thorncliffe informed the researcher that they are not aware that citizens may have input into the Advisory Committee of the school. A comment of this nature invites the school to maintain channels of communication that extend to all groups and individuals within Thorncliffe. The establishment of channels of communication will result in people being sufficiently informed of school content and may provide feedback to the school which will be helpful in formulating policies that meet neighborhood needs.

Recommendation 4: that the school continue to encourage local groups, clubs and agencies to take advantage of the existing school-

community facilities. This may be done by taking some school activities into the neighborhood, such as scraping snow for senior citizens in winter, cleaning parks in summer, and providing entertainment (concerts and drama) to neighborhood clubs and organizations.

Recommendation 5: that the school implement fully all the six components of Minzey's and LeTarte's model of a community school (programs and process). This is crucially important if the Thorncliffe school wants to facilitate the improvement of its neighborhood. Specifically, school programs must complement the process components and vice versa. In other words, programs of the school should not be emphasized more than the process aspects, rather both should have equal weight in the implementation process. Thus, when programs and process are effectively implemented, the latter will assist the school in determining appropriate programs or activities which are in themselves community oriented.

Finally, the author would like to suggest that the Thorncliffe school, like most Canadian community schools, has borrowed extensively from American community schools (Flint Community Schools). Such borrowing is in the area of program components, while the process has not been achieved. However, to enhance Canadian content, the Thorncliffe school should also implement process components through which cultural diversity, which distinguishes Canada from the United States, will be brought into the school programs. In other words, the Thorncliffe school will perform better when it implements programs and process which have Thorncliffe content.

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APPENDIX 1

PILOT STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

1. OBJECTIVES

(a) What is your grade level? _____

(b) How long have you been at this Community School?

_____

(c) Why do you prefer attending the Community School rather than other school? _____

_____

(d) Does the school help you achieve this goal? _____

_____

If yes, how? _____

If no, why? _____

2. PARTICIPATION

(a) In a school year, how often do non-teaching staff participate in your class? _____

(b) Do you think this should be continued? _____

_____

(c) Do your teachers permit you to engage in community projects as part of school work? _____

(d) How often does this occur in a school year? _____

_____

(e) Is it worth continuing? _____

Why? _____

(f) Does the community have programs for young people?

_____

(g) What type of programs? _____

_____

(h) Should they be continued? _____

_____

(i) Do students have any input in determining what they should study? _____

_____

(j) Are the staff members open to suggestions from the students?

_____

_____

(k) How would you rate your community school in relation to other schools in your city or community?

1. Educationally? _____

_____

2. Socially? _____

_____

Thanks for your cooperation.

APPENDIX 2

REVISED STUDENT QUESTIONNAIRE

GRADES 4 - 6

1. What grade are you? _____

2. How long have you been at Thorncliffe Community School? _____

3. Do you feel welcomed at the school?

   Yes _____ No _____ I am not sure _____

4. Do you like going to school?

   Yes _____ No _____ I am not sure _____

5. Do you feel the teachers care about you?

   Yes _____ No _____ I am not sure _____

6. Do you think Thorncliffe School is a good school to go?

   Yes _____ No _____ I am not sure _____

7. Or are there other schools you would rather go?

   Yes _____ No _____ I am not sure _____

8. Do you think school work is important?

   Yes _____ No _____ I am not sure _____

9. Do you like it when parents are in the school to help teachers?

   Yes _____ No _____ I am not sure _____

10. Do you like it when other people come to the class to talk to you?

    Yes _____ No _____ I am not sure _____

11. Do you like it when your class goes on field trips?

    Yes _____ No _____ I am not sure _____

12. Last year your school painted the Community Hockey Rinks and scraped ice after school.

Do you like doing these things?

Yes _____ No _____ I am not sure _____

13. Is it important to help the neighborhood?

Yes _____ No _____ I am not sure _____

14. Do you think we should do more of these?

Yes _____ No _____ I am not sure _____

15. Do you like your teacher?

Yes _____ No _____ I am not sure _____

16. Are your teachers friendly?

Yes _____ No _____ I am not sure _____

17. Do your teachers give you help when you need it?

Yes _____ No _____ I am not sure _____

18. Do you find school work interesting?

Yes _____ No _____ I am not sure _____

19. Are you happy with the marks you get?

Yes _____ No _____ I am not sure _____

20. Does community have activities for young people?

yes _____ No _____ I am not sure _____

21. Are students in the advisory committee?

Yes _____ No _____ I am not sure _____

22. Show how your school is doing in relation to other schools within the neighborhood:

(a) Educationally: High _____ Medium _____ Low _____

(b) Socially: High _____ Medium _____ Low _____

Thanks for your cooperation.

APPENDIX 3

OPINION QUESTIONNAIRE

INSTRUCTIONS

ADMINISTRATORS AND THE TEACHING STAFF MAY RESPOND TO ALL THE QUESTIONS; WHILE PARENTS AND MEMBERS OF THE ADVISORY COUNCIL MAY ANSWER QUESTIONS 1-5 INCLUSIVE

I. OBJECTIVES

(a) Are you aware of objective (s) of the Community School?

_____

_____

(b) Are these objectives achievable? _____

_____

(c) If yes, is the school capable of doing so?

_____

_____

(d) If no, what do you think can be done to achieve them?

_____

_____

II. PROCESS

(a) What are the advantages of having a community school instead of a normal school? _____

_____

(b) Has the community benefited from having a community school?

_____

_____

(c) If yes, how has the community benefited?

_____

_____

_____

(d) What do you think should be done to enhance the benefits of the community school? _____

_____

_____

_____

III. PARTICIPATION

(a) Who are the participating components of the school?

_____

_____

_____

_____

(b) Who participates:

1. more _____

_____

2. less _____

_____

(c) Why do you think so? _____

_____

_____

(d) What do you think can be done to improve the participation aspect of the school? _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

IV. RELATIONSHIP

(a) How do you think the components of community school relate to each other? _____

_____

_____

_____

(b) What kind of support does the school get from the following:

1. Municipal Council _____

_____

2. School Board _____

_____

3. Department of Recreation, Culture and Wildlife _____

_____

4. Business sector _____

_____

5. The community _____

_____

(c) How do you think the relationship could be improved?

_____

_____

V. COST

(a) The operational cost of the community school is _____

Do you think the school is worth such expenditure?

_____

_____

(b) Are the tax-payers getting the value of the money spent in this school? _____

_____

(c) If yes, in what way? _____

_____

(d) If no, why? _____

_____

VI. ADMINISTRATION

(a) What are the problems involved in administering community school? _____

_____

_____

(b) Would you like to see some aspects of the administration changed? _____

_____

_____

(c) Which ones? _____

_____

_____

(d) How would you change them? _____

_____

_____

VII. JOB SATISFACTION

(a) Do you believe in the concept of community school?

_____

_____

(b) Do you have problems teaching in a community school?

_____

(c) What are these problems? _____

_____

_____

(d) Would you rather be in a regular school? _____

_____

_____

(e) What do you think can be done to increase job satisfaction in the community school? _____

_____

_____

_____

_____

Thanks for your cooperation

APPENDIX 4

OPINION QUESTIONNAIRE

INSTRUCTIONS:

ADMINISTRATORS AND THE TEACHING STAFF MAY RESPOND TO ALL THE QUESTIONS; WHILE PARENTS AND MEMBERS OF THE ADVISORY COUNCIL MAY ANSWER QUESTIONS 1-5 INCLUSIVE

1. OBJECTIVES:

(a) Are you aware of the objective (s) of Thorncliffe Community School?

Yes _____ No _____

(b) Are these objectives achievable?

Yes _____ No _____

(c) If "yes", is the school capable of doing so? _____

_____

(d) If "no", what do you think can be do to achieve them?

_____

_____

(e) Is the school meeting the felt needs of the neighborhood?

Yes _____ No _____

(f) Would you like teachers to engage students in community projects

as part of the school work?

Yes _____ No _____

II. PROCESS:

(a) What are the advantages of having a community school instead of a normal school? _____

_____

_____

(b) Has the community benefited from having a community school?

Yes _____ No _____

(c) If yes, how has the community benefited?

_____

_____

_____

(d) What do you think should be done to enhance the benefits from the community school? _____

_____

_____

III. PARTICIPATION:

(a) Who are the participating components of the school?

_____

_____

_____

(b) Who participates:

1. more _____

2. LESS _____

(c) Why do you think so? _____

_____

_____

(d) What do you think can be done to improve the participation aspect of the school? _____

_____

_____

_____

IV. RELATIONSHIP:

(a) How do you think the components of community school relate to each other? _____

_____

_____

(b) What kind of support does the school get from the following:

1. Municipal Council _____

_____

2. School Board _____

_____

3. Department of Recreation, Culture and Wildlife _____

_____

4. Business sector _____

_____

5. The community _____

_____

(c) How do you think the relationship could be improved?

_____

_____

V. COST:

(a) The operational cost of the community school is _____

Do you think the school is worth such expenditure?

Yes _____ No _____

(b) Are the tax-payers getting the value of the money spent in this school?

Yes _____ No _____

(c) If "yes", in what way? _____

_____

(d) If "no", why? _____

_____

VI. ADMINISTRATION:

(a) What are the problems involved in administering community school?

_____

_____

(b) Would you like to see some aspects of the administration changed?

Yes _____ No _____

(c) Which ones? _____

_____

(d) How would you change them? _____

_____

_____

VII. JOB SATISFACTION:

(a) Do you believe in the concept of community school?

Yes _____ No _____

(b) Do you have problems teaching in a community school?

Yes _____ No _____

(c) What are these problems? _____

_____

(d) Would you rather be in a regular school?

Yes _____ No _____

(e) What do you think can be done to increase job satisfaction in the community school? _____

_____

_____

_____

Thanks for your cooperation,

APPENDIX 5

THORNCLIFFE COMMUNITY SCHOOL

LETTER TO PARENTS

The priority of Thorncliffe and other community schools is always the education of the school aged child. However, we feel that because a child does not grow up in a vacuum, the school must orientate itself to the community it serves. We at Thorncliffe actively work towards achieving the following objectives:

a) community orientated curriculum

b) the involvement of parents

c) the development of a positive school climate for the children, teachers and other staff, parents, other residents, members of local groups and agency personnel

d) the idea that everyone is a teacher and that everyone is a learner

e) interagency cooperation

f) changes to the facility to best suit the needs of the community and the school

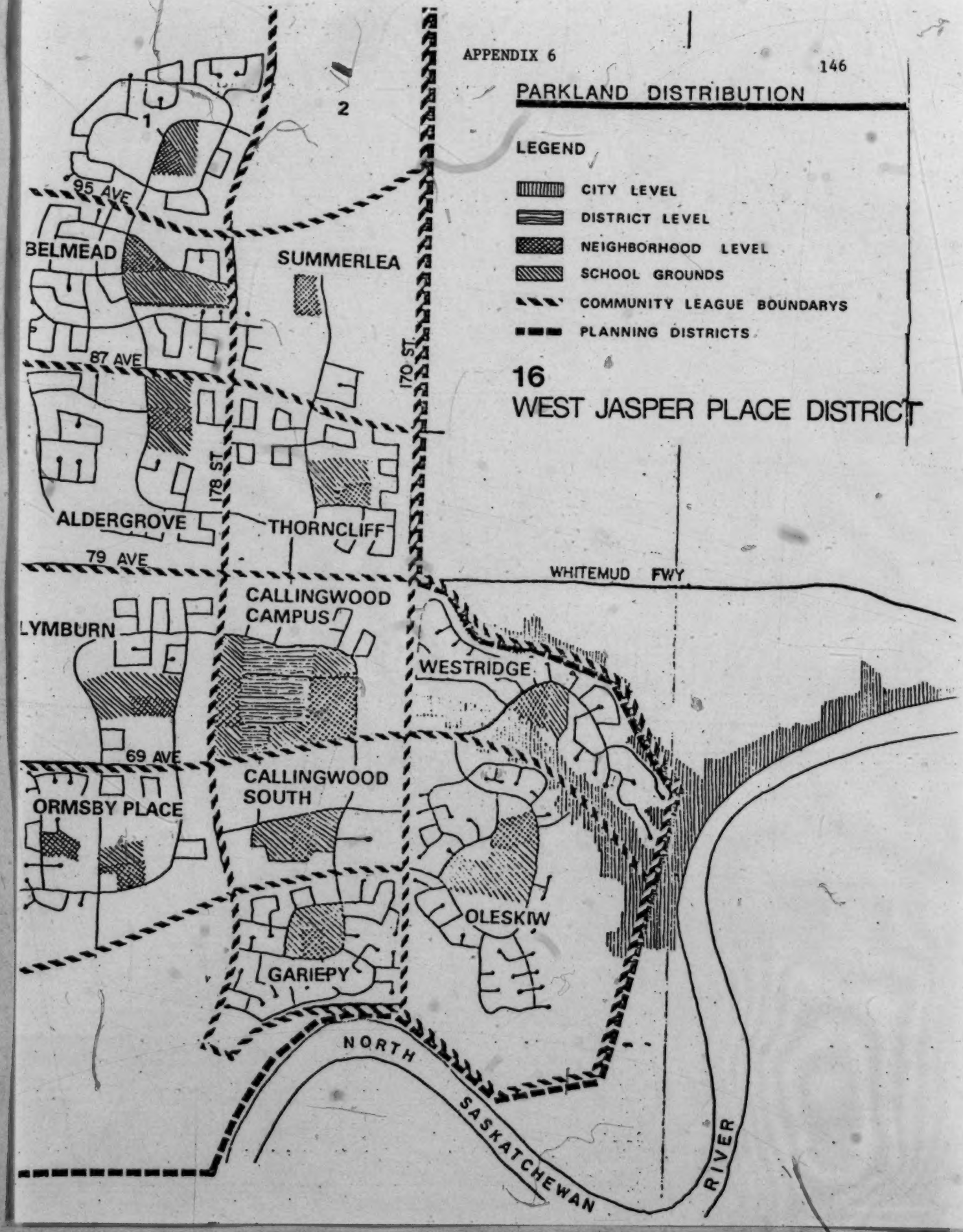
g) extended use of the building so that it serves as a community centre for residents

h) cooperation of all parts of the community so that issues of concern to the community, and the needs of the community and school can be addressed

d) fostering a sense of community

We are working extensively in all the ten areas mentioned above, and would be happy to explain these efforts in more detail if you wish. The education of our children is everyone's responsibility, and we view parents as allies in this area, and in the operation of Thorncliffe as a community school.

Should you require more information on the neighborhood or wish to become more actively involved in Thorncliffe community and school, please call us.


PARKLAND DISTRIBUTION
LEGEND
CITY LEVEL
DISTRICT LEVEL
NEIGHBORHOOD LEVEL
SCHOOL GROUNDS
COMMUNITY LEAGUE BOUNDARYS
PLANNING DISTRICTS
16
WEST JASPER PLACE DISTRICT
1
2
95 AVE
BELMEAD
SUMMERLEA
87 AVE
170 ST
178 ST
ALDERGROVE
THORNCLIFF
79 AVE
WHITEMUD FWY
CALLINGWOOD CAMPUS
LYMBURN
WESTRIDGE
69 AVE
CALLINGWOOD SOUTH
ORMSBY PLACE
OLESKIW
GARIEPY
NORTH SASKATCHEWAN RIVER

COMMUNITY RESOURCE CENTRE

COMMUNITY SCHOOL CONCEPT

COORDINATED DELIVERY OF SOCIAL SERVICES

- HEALTH SERVICES
- DAY CARE CENTRE
- LIBRARY SERVICES
- EMPLOYMENT AGENCY
- RECREATION
- SOCIAL DEVELOPMENT
- OTHER EDUCATIONAL AGENCIES

COMMUNITY ADVISORY COUNCILS

- CURRICULUM (Day Program)
- POLICY: IMPLEMENTATION OF CONCEPT

COMMUNITY USE OF SCHOOLS

- RECREATION
- ENRICHMENT
- ACADEMIC UPGRADING

USE OF COMMUNITY RESOURCES

- FIELD TRIPS
- VISITING SPEAKERS
- WORK EXPERIENCE PROGRAMS
- OUTDOOR EDUCATION
- COMMUNITY 'LEARNING' RESOURCES
  - Art Galleries
  - Theatres
  - Museums

Source: "The Community School: A Focus on Living", p. 18a.